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We beg leave to state that we decline to return or to enter into correspondence as to rejected communications; and to this rule we can make no exception. Manuscripts not acknowledged within four weeks are rejected.

NOTES OF THE WEEK.

When Queen Victoria was dying, it was known that her eldest daughter could not long survive her. But it is not often that a royal death excites such wide sympathy through Europe. The Empress Frederick was a born ruler, with a rare power of affection, and the pathos of her career lies in the suddenness of the loss which robbed her of both power and husband at one moment. She is said never to have recovered her early energy or the full vivacity of her wit; but she continued to turn her great qualities of mind and heart to good account. She remained an artist and a worker on behalf of art: witness the School of Applied Art in Berlin, of which she was both the originator and designer. Her sympathy with poverty and suffering which was first shown to the world during the Franco-Prussian war was maintained till her death; and several institutions testify in a concrete form to her work on behalf of humanity and the higher training of women.

The political life of the Empress was not happy. She was a born ruler and she was denied scope. At the time of the Franco-Prussian war and in the unhappy medical squabbles round her husband's death-bed she was the object of monstrous misrepresentations. Her exceeding love of England was known to everyone and was the prime cause of the long duel she fought with Bismarck. He thought she disliked both him and his political ideas, and in so far as he was a hater of England this was probably true. But later their relations were improved. Bismarck recognised the Empress' love of Germany and bore witness to the force of her intellect. In his *Life*, written by Busch, one of the most valuable passages is that in which he dissipates the outrageous calumny circulated at the time of the Emperor's death. It may be that her claims to the notice of history are not less remarkable than Bismarck's. She taught her son to develop the wide tastes which he inherited from her. Through her Germany has rid itself of some part of its grosser Philistinism, and not a little through her teaching the naturalness of the alliance between Britain and Germany is slowly becoming a political creed.

It has often seemed that the votes of condolence passed by Parliament are little better than the observance of a ceremonial formality. Those who listened to Mr. Balfour in January last, as on Wednesday, have on the other hand all been struck by the depth of the feeling shown by the speaker and the House. The reason is not so much that Mr. Balfour by his wide culture and personal charm is better fitted than his predecessors to fill the part, but that the background of loyalty in the country has seldom before been so firmly set. That which touches the King touches his subjects, and in the case of the Empress Frederick there was profound respect for her character, her intellect and the work she had done for civil and intellectual liberty, as well as a wide sympathy for the pain she had borne with exceptional fortitude. It was right and natural that the sympathy of the House should have been extended also to the Kaiser, for the feeling of the nation, as well as his representatives, is with him. Even more striking was Lord Salisbury's tribute in the House of Lords. Seldom, whether in speech or in book, has the character of a great life been more tellingly sketched in few words. The brilliant opening of the Princess Royal's life, contrasted with the sombre close to which it sank, was put before the House with the restraint of real pathos.

Lord Kitchener has at last taken a step which will either end the war or warrant the Imperial Government in treating the Boers who remain in the field as outlaws. A proclamation has been issued to the effect that unless "all commandants, field cornets and leaders of armed bands, being burghers of the late Republics still engaged in resisting His Majesty's forces", surrender by 15 September, they will be permanently banished from South Africa and the maintenance of their wives and families charged on their properties. The preamble to this proclamation makes the position quite clear. There is now no body of Boers in the field capable of carrying on operations which could be dignified by the name of regular warfare. Lord Kitchener has held his hand till the last moment. But he does not intend to give General Botha and his friends the opportunity of prolonging this irregular campaign beyond the South African winter without incurring risks which even they may not be prepared to face.

Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman complained at Peckham that the public had ceased to take interest in the actual campaign, but as no less than 61 columns are operating in three colonies and almost every engagement consists in the collisions of patrols or the chasing of

invisible commandos the inability of the public to follow details is not surprising. Lord Kitchener telegraphed on 6 August a list of accumulated successes since 28 July and it was much about the usual length. The number of surrenders was especially satisfactory, and an additional telegram received on 9 August reported the voluntary surrender of Commandant de Villiers, a man of considerable importance, and two field cornets. On the same day came news of the capture of twenty-five of our cavalry, a mishap which shows that the Boers when in superior numbers can still act vigorously. General French is said to have dominated the marauding bands in Cape Colony, but he has not yet succeeded in doing more than drive the commandos before him. The news on the whole is satisfactory, except that as the Boer generals lose control of their troops the number of treacherous cruelties continually increases.

Mr. Chamberlain's speech in the House of Commons on Friday week roused the Nationalists to fury and has been regretted by some members of his own party. Its tone was bitter and its matter uncompromising. But it is fair to remember that the Colonial Secretary was called upon to discuss the South African situation whilst Lord Kitchener's account of the latest Boer brutalities was fresh in his mind. He describes—and we think rightly describes—the men who shoot natives and wounded soldiers and threaten to shoot every Kaffir engaged in the British service, as brigands. The Government have no alternative but to insist that anyone found guilty of thus murdering the natives shall suffer the death penalty. To the Nationalists and pro-Boers this notification merely means an aggravation of existing racial bitterness, and is the logical outcome of the Ministerial policy of laying waste the territory of the late Republics. Another point which Mr. Chamberlain made clear was that Lord Kitchener will not leave South Africa until, in his and the Government's opinion, he can safely do so. Mr. Kruger has informed the Continental interviewer that the situation from the Boer point of view is improving and that the war will end when the British acknowledge the independence of the Republics. The facts supplied by Mr. Chamberlain hardly justify the ex-President's airy and irresponsible optimism.

It is clear from many signs that the Boers of late have been burdensome to their British friends. They have disappointed even Sir William Harcourt, and he was driven in the House to find a new line for his African attack. He selected the native question as his new point of departure. No subject needs more serious discussion but no worse mouthpiece could be found than a pronounced friend of the Boers. Mr. Chamberlain in his reply, as also Mr. Alfred Lyttelton, made the point unpleasantly clear. It is the Boer laws that are still in force, except in so far as they have been modified by the Government in the interests of the native. The pro-Boers and Sir William studiously avoided mentioning the subject previously because they knew that the Boers thought their history had been inexcusably cruel to the native, natural owners of the soil. Mr. Chamberlain showed that the Government meant slowly and with patience to reform existing laws and customs, to abolish the *corvée*, and in a large measure the punishment of flogging, and to organise native labour for the good of all parties. The new appointment of Sir Godfrey Lagden is in itself a sufficient pledge that the cause of the natives will be generously maintained.

Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman has been addressing the good people of Peckham and for once he rose to the height demanded of him by the place and the people: he spoke enough platitudes to sate even the suburbs. The war he considered to be an absorbing subject; in some respects the political conduct of the war seemed to him open to criticism; though he himself as a civilian was altogether incapable of judging, he dared to say that mistakes had been made in burning farms and in the management of the refugee camps. For one moment he rose above the mediocre tenour of his speech owing to the acidity excited by the mention of Mr. Chamberlain's name; but he sank again with

rapidity in his peroration, when he recommended on the conclusion of war the proclamation of a liberal amnesty, whatever that may mean. It was a poor performance for the Leader of the Opposition, the more so as the future settlement of the African colonies is a subject full of inspiration and it is of the utmost importance to the national credit that it should be fully threshed out. The Government are likely to become more and more in need of a vigorous Opposition.

"Geographical gravitation" is a good phrase but in the reference used by Lord Lansdowne a thoroughly bad principle; and for this good reason, that interests in China cannot geographically gravitate towards us. Geographical gravitation is not a creed to be preached by the Foreign Office of a sea power. Everyone will agree with Lord Lansdowne that the ending of the Chinese difficulty—if it is ended—is a subject for congratulation. A number of the troops have returned, the amount of the indemnity, which is to be at 5 per cent., as well as the date of the payment of the instalments, have been finally settled and the policy of the open door is to be maintained by the nations even, so Lord Lansdowne assures us, in Manchuria. But if Lord Lansdowne's optimistic forecast is analysed it results in—what? That geographical gravitation carries Manchuria into the Russian Empire with the vaguest promise of the maintenance of the open door, and that we have no corresponding sphere of interest in the Yang-tse Valley. It is the duty of the Foreign Office to insist on the law of commercial rather than geographical gravitation in China. Commerce makes geography in these days of steam not less truly than geography commerce.

The news that the Chinese Plenipotentiaries are much disturbed in regard to the Lama of Tibet's mission to the Emperor of Russia will not surprise anyone who understands the special relations existing between the two countries. China's power over Tibet is merely nominal, and though Mandarins are stationed throughout the country, they only rule over Chinese residents and cannot interfere with the natives. China has every advantage in creating obstacles to foreign enterprise in Tibet. By encouraging the Tibetans to beware of the "greedy" foreigner and by spreading reports as to the many dangers awaiting the explorer, the country, until the last year or two, has been kept practically closed to all outside influence. Setting aside political considerations, commercial interests are at stake, for China has the monopoly of Tibetan trade, which it is anxious to preserve. Recent events, which render the payment of China's annual subsidy to Tibet doubtful, have probably precipitated matters. The Emperor, who professes great veneration for the sacred person of the Dalai Lama, pays a large bounty to Lhasa Lamas for daily invocations to Çakya-Mouni and all the Buddhas to shower blessings upon his Imperial head. This subsidy, without which the maintenance of so many lameries would have been impossible, has kept the Chinese in touch with the Tibetans, though the latter have been aware for some time that trade with foreigners was gradually becoming a necessity. That the Dalai Lama should show a preference for Russia is not at all remarkable.

The Sultan of Turkey is one of those persons who tries to make up for lack of power by petty indulgence in nagging insults. When the French Government politely demanded the payment of several outstanding debts, due for money advanced for railway construction, and suggested that the French companies whose capital is invested in the quays and docks in Constantinople should be properly treated the Sultan met the case by shutting himself up and saying he was not at home to the French Ambassador. It was a childish proceeding. The French press gave way at once to its usual excesses and M. Constans himself suggested his own recall and the delivery of his passports to the Turkish Ambassador in Paris. M. Delcassé took up a firm attitude and the Sultan has had to come out of his retirement and to make promises. The state of the Exchequer will make the payment of the debts—one of which amounts to as much as 45,000,000 fr.—a task of

great difficulty, so that it is the more foolish on the part of the Sultan further to aggravate his creditors by insulting their agent and maltreating their companies.

It is beyond denial that the House of Commons is a singularly unbusinesslike House, both slow and ineffective in its methods. Among leaders Mr. Balfour has not been conspicuous for "driving force", and there has certainly been some muddling. But the management of Supply is just one of the things he has not muddled, but very sensibly reformed. There were nearly a hundred votes outstanding and had a division been forced on each of these heads the House would have spent something like twenty hours in the mere mechanical process of dividing. Pending some thorough reformation of the ways of business in the House Mr. Balfour's proposal to "lump" the votes under a few heads was inevitable. More than the normal time has already been passed in discussion of the votes and though it be conceded that the excessive number still outstanding is due in part to want of energy, the time spent in the useless process of dividing on foregone questions would only bring the House of Commons into ridicule. The "demoralisation of the House of Commons", of which Sir William Harcourt spoke, is due more to much than little speaking. Carlyle's "windy palaver and imaginary entity" is the bane of all deliberative assemblies.

It is in debates, such as that on the Home Office Vote at the beginning of the week, that the House of Commons is seen at its best, which, if exceptional, is distinctly good. In the earlier part at any rate of that debate, with the exception of Mr. Coghill who apparently would go back to the dark ages of factory life, no one spoke without saying something of use and to the point—and even Mr. Coghill to some extent served as a peg for Mr. Asquith and Mr. Ritchie. Mr. Ritchie may be lacking in imagination, but he is clearly something much more than the good, plain man of business that his inappreciative admirers love to describe him. He is one of the Parliamentary statesmen of to-day who have created something—though we are quite aware of course that a section of the party might liken that something to the creations of the "frail form" in "Adonais"—and after the well-meaning but distinctly flaccid régime of Sir Matthew White Ridley, the breadth of view and the mastery of Home Office business which he is showing are invigorating. Mr. Ritchie is obviously one of the successes of the session. "In substance and in spirit satisfactory" was Mr. Asquith's opinion of Mr. Ritchie's speech as a whole; a high encomium, coming from the lips of, in these matters, a most critical opponent and probably the best Home Secretary of the last half-century.

Some interesting points in connexion with the Factory Acts were raised by Mr. Tennant. We quite concur in his view that there should be a permanent lady inspector in the Potteries district. Sooner or later such an appointment is bound to be made, and we hope Mr. Ritchie will give way in this matter before long. Mr. Ritchie was as satisfying in the latter part of the debate, which referred to the rehousing question, as he was in regard to factories. He admitted the necessity of lengthening the period for the repayment of loans under the Housing Act: happily there is now a consensus on that point. We hope Mr. Ritchie realises—and in this only was his speech a little doubtful and disappointing—that the London housing question cannot be settled by Guinness or any other Trust or by any local authority petty or the reverse. The State alone can grapple with the difficulty with any hope of overcoming it. We note without any surprise that the housing part of the debate was initiated and carried on solely by Ministerialists. The Liberals seem to respect this as essentially Tory ground and to refrain from what might seem almost like trespass.

But if the Liberals desist from active work in connexion with the London housing question, they are not above putting a spoke in the Tory wheel when the chance occurs. When the North-Western Railway

Bill not long ago was thrown out in the Commons because the Company had managed to evade the standing orders of the House in regard to rehousing, it was proposed to appoint a Committee to consider how such evasion could in future be made impossible. The Committee was to consist of five members, three Ministerialists and two members of the Opposition. Considering that the matter applied to Ireland as well as to England, the Irish members were certainly not unreasonable in asking for a place on this Committee. But Mr. Herbert Gladstone would have none of them. He held out and still holds out that the two members of the Opposition must be two Liberals named by himself. So the Committee will not be appointed. We are not concerned with the lovers' quarrels of the Irish Nationalists and the English Liberals, but it is a scandal that poor folk should become and remain homeless because the Liberal Whip is swollen with the dignity of a barren office.

The Government have only themselves to thank for the somewhat ridiculous position in which they found themselves on the discussion in the House of the Bill for confirming the London Provisional Orders of the Board of Education. Sir John Gorst had given a pledge in respect of this Bill, which had not been properly observed, whereupon Major Evans Gordon moved its recommittal to a Select Committee. Sir John protested and then gave way; and Lord George Hamilton smoothed things over. There was no need for Sir William Harcourt's solemn bluster, but the Government certainly were in a tight place without much credit to themselves; and it is to be hoped they have learnt their lesson. It is unfortunate that Sir John Gorst should so often neutralise the influence of his commanding ability and knowledge by doing things in a way that generates gratuitous friction.

The abandonment of the Bill amending the Royal Declaration was announced in the House of Commons by Mr. Balfour on Thursday. He adopted the plausible plea put forward by Lord Salisbury in the Upper House that, as the Roman Catholics, for whose benefit the Bill was promoted, did not seem inclined to accept, or at any rate showed no gratitude for, the amendment of the Declaration proposed, there was no use in going on with the Bill. This will do as advocacy, but it is not difficult to see that it is in truth nothing but an excuse. There was no sudden change in the Roman Catholic attitude. Indeed to speak plainly, the conduct of the Government in this matter seems to come very near to jockeying the Lords. They were urged to put up with an amendment of the Declaration admitted by its authors to be far from the best possible and to possess a multitude of faults, and were persuaded to hurry the Bill through its stages with the least possible discussion, always on the plea that otherwise it would not be possible to pass it through the Commons this session. And then when it gets to the Commons, the Government abandon the Bill without even an attempt to get it passed.

In Mr. Bramston Beach the House of Commons has lost a fine English gentleman of the old school, homo antiqua virtute et honore. Mr. Beach never spoke but once, we believe, on the second reading of any big Bill, indeed all his House of Commons speeches might be counted on the fingers of one hand; but the House will miss him none the less for that. Everybody respected him and those who knew him well cared for his good opinion not a little. He was buried on Friday in the beautiful little churchyard of Dean in Hampshire, hard by the home and the village which he thought the best in the world. Mr. Beach will perhaps be succeeded in the representation of the Andover or Western Division of Hampshire by a member of the Portal family. The Liberal machinery in the constituency is old-fashioned and very rusty through disuse, and we do not fancy that Mr. Judd will be likely to come out in the tenant farmers' interest.

On Tuesday the King bade farewell to the crew of the "Discovery", "this most wonderful ship", which forthwith started on a voyage of which the dangers are

beyond comparison greater than any that lurk round the North Pole. *Omne ignotum pro terribili*, and while the currents and the lie of land and sea are tolerably well known in the north almost everything is unknown in the antarctic circle. There is supposed to be ice-free land, now as in almost classical days, beyond the packs, and Commander Scott and his crew hope to give the new continent a local habitation and a name. The "Discovery" has many predecessors of the name, but the last of the list is equipped with a fulness of scientific appliance that excels any ship yet fitted out and since her crew have all the zest of the old discoverers they are likely to add greatly to the fame of British adventure. A German expedition under Dr. von Dryalski is also setting out. The work of Commander Scott and the usefulness of the voyage are likely to be enhanced by the international co-operation of the two crews.

The Eisteddfod has suffered this year in more ways than one. In the first place it has been more ignored than usual by the London press owing to the demands which Parliamentary reporting and the death of the Empress Frederick made on newspaper space. Then the weather has been unfavourable and the bards at the gorsedd did not wear their robes. As was the case last year, the Welsh choirs have been beaten by an English one. Altogether it seems degenerating into an imitation of the Festival of the three Choirs. However there was present a deputation from Brittany. The Eisteddfod reminds one of the Welsh neglect of Snowdon. Snowdon (a Welsh bard sang) is the snow-crowned fortress built by God that Wales may rest in freedom. It is therefore more regrettable that the M.P.'s and numerous literary societies of Wales leave it to Englishmen and Scotchmen to save Snowdon from pollution. The Portmadoc railway was not wanted and it is greatly to be feared that it will be the means of ruining one of the grandest pieces of scenery in Europe. Mr. John Burns deserves every credit for his plucky stand in the House against this exhibition of Welsh Philistinism.

The money market has been fairly easy during the week, the only factor which induced some hardening tendency being the instalment due on Thursday on account of the new Consol issue. The rate on Tuesday for day to day loans was at 1 and money was offered freely; loans for the week however were quoted at 2 for the reason above indicated. The instalment was easily met and resulted in no stringency in the market—rates temporarily stiffened to 3 on Wednesday but eased off on Thursday afternoon and now stand at about 2. The Bank statement disclosed some important alterations; the total reserve is lower by about £670,000; other deposits have fallen off by £3,465,500 and the active circulation has contracted by £113,400. The coin and bullion is less by £782,900 but the resultant of the change is an increase in the ratio of cash to liabilities which is now 49½ per cent. The Board of Trade returns for the past month exhibit an increase in the imports of £27,646,555 and a decrease in the exports of £164,786 as compared with the corresponding period of last year.

The general characteristic of the Stock Markets has been that of extreme dulness. The Exchange was closed on Saturday and Monday last, and the holidays have been continued by many members. Consols have shown improvement although slight and the new issue is better at ¾ discount. India Rupee paper has been a good market and closes at 64½. American Stocks were extremely dull at the opening of the week but improved in sympathy with Wall Street where some support, mostly professional, was given to the market and on Thursday a general rise resulted. The market is however very nervous and sensitive and contains little real strength. The steelworkers' strike shows no sign of ending and in many quarters it is considered inevitable that a severe and protracted struggle must ensue. Kaffirs have been flat and West Africans have "slumped". In all the circumstances no improvement in the Stock Market is anticipated for a month or two, and a feeling of apathetic indifference appears to be general. Consols 92½ money, 92½ account. (Bank rate 3 per cent. 13 June 1901.)

THE CHINESE FAILURE.

A PART from Lord Salisbury's remarkable protest against Earl Spencer's assumption that the Government must be cognisant of Count von Bülow's declaration of indifference to Manchuria, the dialogue in the House of Lords, on Tuesday, respecting China was somewhat jejune. Lord Lansdowne was able to exhibit a plausible schedule of progress in the negotiations—he went so far even as to call it "satisfactory progress". But he spoke of it with little enthusiasm; and it is indeed not easy to suppose that anyone acquainted with the facts can regard with much gratification the outcome of twelve months' endeavour to exact reparation for "crimes committed" (in the language of the joint Note) "under circumstances which have no parallel in the history of the world". The extraordinary embassy which China was required to send to Berlin has set out; a heavy indemnity has been fixed; provision for the future defence of the Legation quarter in Peking has been made; and the demolition of the Taku Forts has been agreed to; the Tsung-li-Yamen has been dissolved and a Board of Foreign Affairs instituted in its stead; an edict of 11 June decrees the suspension of official examinations in certain towns where foreigners have been killed; and other points of the programme have been settled in principle if not actually carried out. But the chief authors of these crimes are still at large: the faction which instigated them is still in power; and of the fiscal reforms which experts regard as essential not only for the development of China's resources but to enable her to meet the fresh burdens that have been placed upon her, there is no sign.

We hear a great deal of the Imperial Government: formal use is made even, in the negotiations, of the Emperor's name. But the Emperor is still under the duress in which he has been held since the coup d'état of 1898; and the "Imperial Government" consists of a usurper—the Empress Dowager—and a triumvirate comprising the so-called "lie-eunuch", Li Lien-yung, and two ultra-reactionaries, former colleagues of Prince Tuan. What is to be expected from a Government so constituted our readers can judge for themselves. What the Chinese think of it may be inferred, broadly, from the nickname of The Three Tigers bestowed upon its members. It is difficult to speak seriously of such people as a Government; yet that is presumably what Lord Lansdowne means when he says that "the Chinese Government has had a very severe lesson, and although in future we may not expect a very enlightened policy at their hands, we may at any rate count on a policy more prudent than that which has guided them in the past". Let us hear what the (Chinese) correspondent of the "North China Herald" at Si-ngan thinks of that prospect. "Instead [he writes] of becoming more enlightened and amenable to present conditions as taught them by the resistless march of the Allies last year, the Government of Si-ngan is now more bigoted, more conservative and more anti-foreign than it was ever before." The avowal is consistent with a statement that the latest device for securing revenge on officials, who protected missionaries instead of abetting Prince Tuan's edict of extermination is to denounce them to the Throne for not having done precisely what they did! Then they can be punished on grounds to which foreigners may not object.

Let us see what is happening to the real culprits in the meantime. The joint Note presented by the Powers in February last required "the infliction of the severest punishment in proportion to their crimes" upon certain persons indicated. One or two notorious criminals have been executed by the Powers themselves. It is alleged that Yu Hsien, the Governor of Shansi who collected and killed some half-hundred missionaries in the courtyard of his official residence, has been executed and that Kang Yi has died a natural death; but both statements are open to doubt. Prince Tuan, at any rate, is at large, and Tung Fuh-siang is at home in his family residence which a correspondent describes as more like a fortress than a private house and as containing vast stores of gold and silver among other property acquired in the suppression of rebellions and in such opportunities as that afforded by the chaos at

Peking. One magistrate, who had been denounced as guilty of seizing and handing over certain missionaries for execution to Yu Hsien, was found actually in office in Shanse; and the Shanghai correspondent of the "Times" informs us that another, who was notoriously responsible for the atrocious murder of certain English missionaries in the province of Chekiang, is still at large and posing as a person of importance in Hangchow, although the British Consul-General demanded his exemplary punishment a year ago. It need not surprise us to be told that indignation is felt at such a miscarriage of justice within 100 miles of Shanghai; nor need we be surprised if the best officials in the Consular service resign positions which they feel to be intolerable under such humiliating conditions.

Lord Lansdowne recognises that a Government which fosters this state of things needs reform, yet thinks that the Powers did wisely to leave it alone: people whom he credits with knowing the Chinese best have advised him that "if we imposed upon them rulers or high officials of our choice, those rulers and those officials would be known to the people mainly as persons who had been imposed upon them by the foreigner who is, he fears, a cordial object of aversion, and would very likely be powerless for good". The sentence is redolent of Peking. We will let a provincial Chinaman reply: it is a Chinese suggestion that the Powers should inform the Chinese Government that they cannot consent to withdraw their forces from Peking until the Emperor arrives there alone, armed with his proper prerogatives as sovereign of the Chinese Empire; and, further, that the Empress be required to sign an edict resigning all pretensions to wield the authority which she has usurped. It is not necessary to go through China displacing and replacing officials: such a course might have the effect apprehended. All that is necessary is to displace a faction who will certainly try to revenge themselves on all who refused to join in the "crimes against the laws of humanity and civilisation" which they instigated—and to replace the Emperor in power.

A recent letter from Shanghai reminds us that the question of endeavouring to get as much of the indemnity as possible out of foreign trade is not settled by the refusal to let it be imposed in the shape of Customs Dues. "They will try to get it through the medium of likin; and not only so but [continues the writer] I much fear the result will be serious inter-provincial friction. Peking protests against Tribute rice and Manchu pensions being touched; and says that likin, salt and Native Customs are the things to go for. The Yangtze Viceroy in turn object, reasonably declaring that the row was none of theirs. . . . Moreover, of one thing you may be certain—that the Reactionaries, who are still controlling the Court, will move Heaven and earth to get their knives into the Viceroy for the stand which the latter made against the 'national uprising', and will make them pay up if they can". It is freely questioned whether retaliation will stop there. It is to be feared that, when things cool down, excuses may be devised for removing them from office, if not worse; and regrets are reiterated that His Majesty's Government have not seen fit to give them the explicit assurance which their conduct entitles them to expect. It has been contended that China must stand together, and bear collectively the punishment of her crimes. But the provincial view is that the provinces are units, and that the guilty should suffer most. "Why", asks another Chinese correspondent, "should the people groan under new burdens, and their dislike of the foreigner be thereby intensified, while Peking practically escapes and the estates of such men as Tung Fuh-siang and Kang Yi, Princes Tuan and Chuan, Li Ping-heng and Yu Hsien are left intact? To confiscate the estates of those leaders and apply the proceeds to the indemnity would not only be just but would tend to keep others in the path of rectitude"! The present Chinese Government will not do it, because the present Government is hand in glove with the criminals. The Emperor probably would, if he could escape; because these are precisely the men who have been holding him in duress. The whole crisis might pro-

bably have been averted if an ear had been lent, in 1898, to his appeal for help. The most crucial outstanding problems—the punishment of criminal officials, the safety of the loyal viceroys, the inauguration of administrative reform—would be put automatically in the way of solution by his restoration. But precisely for that reason the Reactionaries will be careful to hold him fast. Doubts are even expressed whether the Empress and her triumvirate purpose returning to Peking at all. They name dates, which are always postponed; and have even appointed officers to repair the roads; but mending roads means opportunity for speculation, and one thing certain is that no opportunity of that kind will ever be neglected by the creatures of the Court.

THE HARD CASE OF THE BRITISH REFUGEES.

IN a general South African debate in the House of Commons on Tuesday Mr. Chamberlain warmly defended himself and Lord Milner from the charge that the welfare of the British refugees was being neglected. He declared that he would feel deeply humiliated if the charge could be proved, and then and there he formally pledged the Government to supply any funds necessary to the comfort of the loyal refugees. We are very glad that this matter has been raised. The plight of these people has been much overlooked of late, thanks largely no doubt to the activity of those English men and women who have been conducting a crusade on behalf of the Dutch element; yet it is most pitiable. Their homes have been broken up; in many cases their means of livelihood have been taken from them, and in all cases they have been subjected to privation and discomfort for a period which now approaches two years. It is true that these British refugees are not the only non-combatants who have suffered through the war in this extreme form. Both Dutch and English have been driven from their homes in the Transvaal and Orange River Colony and in those portions of the Cape Colony and Natal which have been exposed to the attacks of the enemy. But the relationship of these Dutch and English sufferers to the English public, and the actual condition of the refugees of the two nationalities, are widely different. The Dutch refugees in the concentration camps are for the most part the wives and sisters of husbands and brothers who have been, and still are, in arms against us. How far these men are responsible for the criminal protraction of the war is a question which we need not discuss. It is sufficient to know that the whole burgher class entered upon the war in a spirit of unreasoning animosity against England, and supreme contempt of the English race. There is an uncouth phrase, said to have been actually spoken by a burgher some three months before the ultimatum was delivered, which we reproduce here, because it comes straight from the heart of the Transvaal Boer of two years ago: *Ons wil nou Engelse schiet*. Nevertheless these Dutch refugees, being for the most part women who cheered on the men who went to war in this spirit against the English race, are now supplied with the necessaries of life by our Government. That is to say, they are furnished with food and clothing on the same scale as the soldiers who form the British army in South Africa. In addition to this they benefit by private benevolence both English and foreign; and as a matter of fact considerable sums have been collected for them in Germany, Holland, and America, apart from the efforts of Miss Hobhouse and her supporters and the fund recently started by the Victoria League.

That is the condition of the Dutch refugees. What is the position of the British refugees? First, how do they stand in relation to England and the English nation? They are the victims of mistakes in the past for which the whole country is responsible. Against these mistakes they and their fathers protested at the time, but their protests were addressed to deaf ears. It is possible that since the fatal policy of non-intervention was once put into effect by the Conventions of 1852 and 1854, nothing less than force of arms would have availed to recover the lost unity of the Europeans in South Africa. But it is at least certain that on more than one occasion in the past a strong and

consistent policy would have averted the necessity for a struggle on the gigantic scale of the present war. This being so, the people of England are bound in common justice to alleviate the sufferings of those loyalists who have now been driven from the territories, which England in its folly and ignorance abandoned to the Boers. We say the people of England advisedly; for under a system such as ours it is impossible to separate the people of England from the action of their Government. Ministers of State are the agents of the nation. Had the nation cared and known about South Africa fifty years and twenty years ago, as it cares and knows about it to-day, neither the Orange River Sovereignty would have been abandoned nor the Transvaal retroceded. The temper of the nation has been only too faithfully reflected in the vacillation of our South African policy, and in the refusals of successive Governments to face responsibilities which could only be postponed at the price we pay to-day. Even as late as June 1899—the June before the war broke out—the hands of Lord Salisbury's Government were tied by the knowledge that the mind of the nation was not yet made up. The nation, therefore, cannot separate itself from the errors of the Government in the past; it shares its responsibility in the present, and it is bound to do its utmost to lessen the misery of those who are now suffering from these errors.

As regards the actual needs of the loyalist refugees, the facts are these. Since they were expelled, now nearly two years ago, they have subsisted at Capetown and Durban through the liberality of their personal friends, aided by the funds supplied from England. The Mansion House Fund, upon which they have been latterly dependent, will be exhausted by the end of the present month. For some time past this fund has been administered with the greatest economy, and only the sick or the otherwise absolutely helpless have been relieved. At the same time the refugees have made efforts on their own behalf. Wives accustomed to employ their own servants have gone out themselves as domestic servants, and children who should have been at school have been set to any work that offered. Nevertheless persons who would otherwise have been neither fed nor clothed have been entirely dependent for the supply of such necessities on the Mansion House Fund. From the end of this month, therefore, when this fund will be exhausted, fresh supplies must be provided, if the more helpless of the refugees are not to be left in absolute destitution. The period for which this provision must be made will depend, of course, upon the duration of the war. But this is not the sole purpose for which money is required. When the war is over, and the time has come for these refugees to return to their homes, means will be required to re-establish them in their former occupations.

To re-establish the refugees, in addition to supplying their immediate necessities, is a purpose for which a considerable fund would be necessary. If the appeal made on their behalf were left wholly to private liberality, we believe that the country would not fail to make an adequate response when once the character of the claim was made known and understood. But private effort cannot be thought of; the case is far too urgent. We trust that the Government in this matter will show no "moral bonelessness". An immediate and considerable grant from the public funds is necessary.

THE NAVAL MANŒUVRES.

THE naval manœuvres came to an end on Monday, actual hostilities having lasted for a week. The incidents that occurred should afford much matter for reflection, and impress the authorities with the necessity of giving officers more opportunities for training in cruiser tactics. This class is not intended to fight in squadrons though actions between small divisions of cruisers were frequent during the old wars. Naval supremacy does not rest upon the successes of cruisers—whether singly or in numbers—nor upon actions between opposing torpedo flotillas, but with the side which holds the sea in virtue of superiority in line of battle. The battleship rules the waves and no cruiser can compete with her when the more power-

ful craft appears on the scene. The weaker vessel may interrupt commerce to some extent but must eventually be hunted down unless supported by a fleet at sea. The main object of the cruiser therefore is to bring the opposing battleships into touch that the chief issue may be decided. Nothing should deter her from this work, even to avoiding an action with any similar craft if possible. It was the mission of the B fleet to come in contact with the X squadron but Admiral Noel must have been seriously handicapped by the loss of so many cruisers at the very commencement of hostilities, and thus was not able to find his adversary until just at the conclusion of the mimic war, when off the Lizard he succeeded in bringing twelve battleships against the eight forming the squadron of X. But the latter fleet had certain advantages which, coupled with superiority in cruisers, might lead its commander to claim the victory. Admiral Wilson was largely successful in his rôle of a raider and in evading the enemy but a fleet that remains intact by avoidance cannot be considered to hold command of the sea. As regards the torpedo flotilla what we chiefly desire to know is whether the destroyer operating as a torpedo boat is really a serious menace to battleship squadrons, and if so how it can be best met. The manœuvres do not teach anything in that respect for these small craft appear to have been chiefly occupied in attacking each other. It has been excellent practice no doubt for the young officers concerned, and we shall not grumble at the loss of two valuable vessels where there has otherwise been such evidence of skill and dash in handling, but we trust in future that the problems of modern naval warfare will be more deliberately entered upon, and the desire for sport made subservient to their solution, for too often the object of these manœuvres is lost in the desire to score in an undesirable fashion. Finally do they not teach us something as regards the construction of warships? If sea power lies with the battleship, and the cruiser's principal duty is to scout, there seems no room for an intermediate class. What is the mission of the armoured cruiser? Inferior to the battleship in fighting strength, and its scouting attributes weakened by armour and heavy armament, it seems unnecessary. What is the analogous vessel to the frigate of old? Not surely the 14,000-ton cruiser costing a million sterling. It is a larger number that we require not a few of extreme dimensions, but lately the so-called second-class cruiser has dropped out of fashion. One thing seems certain, that the battleship remains supreme, and as this type cannot be improvised when required we must keep on steadily adding to the number we possess.

CONSOLS AND THE NATIONAL CREDIT.

THE steady decrease in the price of Consols during the past two and a half years resulted on 15 July in the lowest point having been touched since 1870 viz. 91. That the barometer of our national finances should reach this level has doubtless caused much concern to many, but although of considerable importance it does not warrant the pessimistic view of the present and the gloomy forebodings as to the future of the national credit that have been indulged in in certain quarters. The high prices which obtained during the period from 1895 to 1898 were the resultant of circumstances which were abnormal and indeed unhealthy. Capital was redundant and bankers were forced to invest largely in the Funds, although the yield was barely more than sufficient to pay interest on day to day floating deposits. The high prices have been remembered but the contributing causes have been largely forgotten, and "Consols at 114" has been taken as the index of the national credit whereas it was never the measure of their real value. The fact is that the prices preceding the war have tended to obscure the true relative value of the Funds and it is necessary to turn to the history of the Debt to arrive at a fair conclusion for such times as we are now passing through. The years between 1794 and 1815 afford the best comparison, for during that period we were engaged in a struggle, practically continuous, which resulted in the enormous addition to the Debt of £627,562,411. In

1794 the highest price of Consols was $72\frac{3}{4}$, having been at 81 in the previous year. In 1815 at the Peace of Paris the price of the Three per cents was $72\frac{1}{2}$, and thereafter a steady recovery is shown so that in 1825 the price was $94\frac{1}{4}$ and in 1855 $93\frac{3}{4}$, after having been above par in 1844 and 1845. In ten years then after the cessation of the war the Funds rose twenty-two points and in forty years the Debt was reduced by £91,918,397. If the test indicated be applied to our present condition the outlook cannot be regarded as so terribly gloomy. It is true that liabilities totalling £104,000,000 exclusive of Local Loans have been incurred during the course of the war, £60,000,000 of which is a permanent addition to the National Debt, and it is possible that a further £100,000,000 may be added before the war is ended. But the resources of the country are greater than in the first half of last century and the recuperative power is more readily felt. A rise of twenty-two points in ten years may not be experienced but even that is not necessary to restore the price to what it stood in 1899. It may be urged against this deduction that with a further considerable increase to the corpus of the debt prices would go still lower; this is doubtless true but history proves that the declension in prices does not vary directly with the increase of the Debt. During 1794-1815 the variation in price was within 12 points or $16\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. only, whereas the Debt was nearly trebled. The national credit at the present time with Consols at $93\frac{3}{4}$ or 102 for the old Three per cents after allowing for reduction of interest in 1903 and redemption in 1923 is in no bad case.

The desirability of the suspension of the Sinking Fund was clearly shown by the Chancellor of the Exchequer in the debate on the Finance Bill last week and on reflection the taxpayer who provides the money for the Fund will probably agree with the Chancellor. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach stated most definitely that he was fully alive to the importance of the resumption of the provision for the Fund on a return to peace and the country has every confidence in that assurance. For ourselves we would prefer to see the Sinking Fund at even a higher level than it was three years ago in accordance with the principle laid down by Adam Smith that the reduction of the Debt in time of peace should bear a proper proportion to its accumulation in time of war.

The causes which have affected the price of Consols may be summarised thus:—

- (a) The extravagant price which ruled before the war.
- (b) The addition of a large sum to the corpus of the Debt.
- (c) The suspension of the Sinking Fund.
- (d) The great falling off in the purchases by the Post Office Savings Bank.
- (e) The diversion of trust investments into other channels less immediately affected than the Funds by a state of war, and with a better yield.

A study of prices during the past century should go far to relieve holders of Consols from anxiety and a return to normal times will doubtless quickly rehabilitate prices, amply repaying those who now purchase. We do not look to quotations reaching the high level of $113\frac{3}{4}$, as in our opinion apart from abnormal causes investors have at last realised the meaning of the impending reduction of interest and possible redemption, but within a year after the resumption of peace we confidently anticipate that Consols will stand at a much higher quotation than at present.

THE ARMS OF THE SERVICE.

IV.—ARMAMENT, MUSKETRY, AND ENTRENCHMENTS.

WE have left certain technical matters for review in a final article. While we seek for greater elasticity in drill formations and endeavour to abolish a stereotyped uniformity, neither must we omit to give up that striving after uniformity in matters of armament which has of late years pervaded not only our own but the artillery of other countries also. It would no doubt save a certain amount of trouble and obviate risks of error, if every gun

with an army fired precisely the same ammunition, but in striving for such a perfect arrangement we must infallibly sacrifice some other and even more considerable advantages. The same gun will not do for both horse and field artillery, it will be too heavy for work with cavalry, and not as powerful as it should be in support of infantry. A few years back we tried the experiment and destroyed the mobility of our horse artillery in consequence. During the earlier stages of the war the value of a powerful artillery was much felt when the siege artillery of the Boers was brought to bear on us, while the astonishing ease with which our opponents placed ponderous cannon in positions that we should have regarded as inaccessible led many to suppose that in our service power had been sacrificed to mobility, and that in future far heavier metal than anything we had previously been accustomed to would be brought into the field. Subsequent experience has not however substantiated these views, and it is now being generally recognised that the conditions under which we fought in South Africa were abnormal, and not likely to be repeated in war in another part of the world. In Natal, where the really heavy fighting of the war has taken place and where the effect of Boer artillery fire has been more severely felt than elsewhere, the fighting when at its fiercest resolved itself into a deliberate and protracted struggle for positions, and partook very much of the character of siege warfare. The Boers awaited us in well-chosen positions, and we had plenty of time to bring powerful guns into position against those which they had slowly and laboriously dragged to the tops of hills. The mountainous nature of the country favoured the adoption of long ranges, and the clearness of the atmosphere rendered observation of fire and target possible in a manner that can scarcely be expected in any other quarter of the globe. When manœuvring had to be undertaken, and long distances covered, it was found that all the mobility of our field artillery was demanded. But the moral effect exerted by the weighty shells of the 6-inch Boer guns did not fail to impress those who witnessed it, and it was generally felt that a proportion of such guns might accompany our armies in future for use on special occasions. It had already been anticipated that howitzers would be useful to drive men out of deeply entrenched positions, and the experiences of the war have fully justified these views. Finally too the sudden and rapid outbursts of pom-pom fire which at the beginning of the war came upon us as a surprise in every sense showed us that side by side with the shattering effect of heavy shells, the intensity of light quick-firing guns could also effect far-reaching results. Thus it came about that a British force, so far from enjoying a uniformity of armament, was soon dragging about with it every imaginable variety of ordnance. Nor did any evil results supervene. Pom-pom ammunition was never distributed to 4.7's, nor howitzer shells to 15-pounders. A little care will always obviate the possibility of error, as it has always done in the past, and we need not allow a bogey to prevent our using the weapon best adapted for the particular purpose in hand. In particular should we legislate that an adequate mobility be always forthcoming from those batteries that have to accompany cavalry. Without guns cavalry can make no headway in screening or reconnaissance duties ahead of armies. A very few riflemen may check a brigade if it be not supported by guns which can clear obstruction from its path. Eight horses in a team are none too many if guns are to keep pace with squadrons, and six have shown themselves on many an occasion all too few. On the other hand field batteries should not be expected to ape horse artillery and should be contented if they can easily accompany the foot soldiers for whose support they are intended. A field gun throwing a heavier shell than 15 lbs. and to a further distance might then be evolved while howitzers and 4.7-inch guns be held in hand for duties when their intervention might be necessary.

It will have been noticed that we have as yet touched only very lightly upon musketry although that part of the infantry soldier's training is very much before the public just now. That is precisely why we do not think it is likely to be overlooked. There is a

danger even that it may be unintelligently fostered, and may become the realm of the faddist. Our deficiencies in shooting during the late war were less strongly marked than any others. Had it been a question of general marksmanship, our battalions would have gained many more laurels than they did. Shooting is the most important part of the foot soldier's training, but being a good shot by no means always makes a man a good soldier, nor does the possession of some excellent marksmen make the battalion which possesses them as good a one on active service as one which has no shining lights but all of whose men can hold a rifle fairly straight. In shooting we want collective not individual excellence. Tailors, mess waiters, and officers' servants, fat and scant of breath; old soldiers, who would very likely not pass the doctor when the battalion went on service, used formerly to be allowed to emerge for a day or two annually from the sweet seclusion of "employment" to make a high score that brought up the figure of merit. We hope this state of things has passed away, but some system of combining an increased amount of marching and tactics with the shooting should be introduced into our musketry in the same way as is done when our field batteries go to practice. With marks for tactical handling and collective excellence, and prizes and an order of merit for all battalions shooting on the same ranges, we should evoke a spirit of emulation which would by itself improve the shooting of our army in war very considerably.

Closely allied with shooting is the subject of field entrenchments, and field fortification, and here we have a part of military training where the intelligence of an instructor can make itself more conspicuous than perhaps in any other. The design of the trench or parapet must be left to circumstances, and it is a mistake to extol (as some writers have done) the patterns shown us by the Boers as worthy of imitation without a saving clause as to the nature of the soil and climate of the theatre of war. A deep Boer trench suited the dry soil and climate of a South African winter well. The porous character of the ground and the steep slopes of the kopjes made drainage a matter of little difficulty, but if similar shelters were dug on the Continent or in England they would often be untenable because full of water. What we should imitate is the nice adjustment of the trenches to the contours of the site; the manner in which they were traced to sweep approaches with fire; the flanking support they were made to yield to one another; the manner in which cover from view was provided for. In certain situations the Boers threw the earth from their trenches behind and not in front. Thus men's heads and loopholes did not show up against the light on a sky-line, and our riflemen were given no aiming points. In another respect also we learnt lessons of universal application. Communications are of supreme importance in the preparation of a position against attack. The shooting line may be often quite securely placed with very little help from the spade or pick. Men may lie close behind rocks or boulders, or amongst grass or bushes may escape observation, but reinforcements coming forward may be obliged to move exposed, or men not knowing the risk they run may rashly walk erect. Ammunition may be needed, and in carrying it forward some exposure is almost inevitable. Approaches to the firing line are often then sorely required, and probably in their absence it is in rear of the firing line that losses are most heavy. Supports needed cover also, especially if artillery fire be brought to bear, and yet were sometimes all forgotten when we prepared our positions. It is in directions such as these that the war has taught us much which it is essential should not be forgotten when peace returns, and we relapse into our normal exercises.

The spade will, we are convinced, play as large a part in future battles as the musket did a hundred years ago. Nor will its usefulness be confined to the defence alone. Counter-positions will form the inevitable feature of future attacks, and it is in them that the antidote to the magazine rifle and smokeless powder must be sought. The rapid and intelligent fortification of ground gained must become a first subject of training and instruction, and officers and men must know exactly

what to do, and set about it without hesitation or delay. Such swift action is only to be arrived at by careful teaching, and the familiarity that is the outcome of repeated practice. We shall never really excel until at field days and manœuvres the trenches are actually dug. This will not easily be effected, but to some extent it might be done at any rate in certain places, and if the labour of subsequent demolition were faced. The problem must be left to the ingenuity of individuals, but it has got to be solved if our infantry is to be as formidable as training might make it.

We have one word to add in conclusion, which must not be held to apply only to our infantry, though it comes in here appositely because in the vast majority of cases infantry are in question. Discipline on sentry and outpost duty has not by any means been what it should have been in South Africa. Almost every "regrettable incident" where posts were captured by night attacks was due to the carelessness or neglect of duty by a portion of the garrison. The cases of sentries sleeping on their posts have been numerous. In former times such an offence would have entailed the death penalty. Theoretically it may do so now, but in practice comparatively mild punishment alone has followed. "You cannot make omelettes without breaking eggs" was a maxim of a great leader; we cannot afford to ignore it nor that other one that tells us how war cannot be waged in kid gloves.

*. This article concludes the series on the "Arms of the Service."

EASTERN AND WESTERN BRIDGE.*

THOUGH Bridge has been known and played throughout the Turkish Levant for the last thirty or forty years, its great popularity in the large towns is of comparatively recent date. During and after the Russo-Turkish War the "Cayenne" and "Preference" variations of whist, both closely resembling Bridge and containing between them most of the elements in mild solution, were considered superior to it. At that period most business men employed the time spent on the steamers plying to and from the Bosphorus villages and the Prince's Islands in playing "Cayenne". There are still living some of the historic party who formed a table in the cabin one Saturday morning, and only quitted it on the following Monday, having travelled up and down the Bosphorus some twenty times, oblivious of all other engagements in the absorption of the game. The habit of playing Bridge on the Shirket steamers is still kept up, but not with the same enthusiasm, though one or two rubbers are usually in progress during the longer journeys on the Mahssousseh boats from Prinkipo. The play is rapid and good, and the steamers are considered as an academy for aspiring novices, and as a source of small income for their semi-professional teachers.

In the Ottoman Bridge world a beginner has little difficulty in gaining admittance to tables where first-rate performers are engaged, provided that the stakes are moderately high. If it is merely and purely a game to pass an idle hour, he will not be allowed to participate so easily, as it is scarcely worth while to spoil it without some equivalent. But there is no antipathy shown by veterans to tiros who are willing to pay, as pay they certainly will, for the privilege of associating with their Bridge superiors. Possibly this is one of the reasons why young players abroad quickly attain a proficiency at the game, which they would never have been able to hope for at whist by frequenting old-fashioned whist clubs. The results of the delinquencies of a "mazette" being equally shared in turn by three good players, they have nothing to do in the end but divide his losings, whilst he can retire with so much the more experience in lieu of his cash deficit. It will seldom be for want of having his errors pointed out to him, often in forcible terms, that he can plead any excuse for repeating them, and this method of enforcing attention to rules on each slight transgression, though somewhat annoying to the culprit will impress his faults on his memory far better than the studying of books.

* "The Laws and Principles of Bridge." By Hellespont. London: De la Rue. 1901. 3s. net.

"Modern Bridge." By "Slam." London: Longmans. 1901. 3s. 6d. net.

Of the making of these there seems no end, and the latest additions to the bibliography of Bridge whilst professing to explain them away, only emphasise the difficulty of mastering its intricacies, since they are both written with an air of weighty authority, and nevertheless flatly contradict each other on various points. The more imposing of the two carries the title of "The Laws and Principles of Bridge", thus irresistibly reminding us of its now moribund predecessor on whist by "Cavendish", and the author also prefers to hide his identity under the nom de guerre of "Hellespont". It is well got up and after the same pattern as its venerable prototype, and we may say at once that it appears as a whole superior to previous treatises on Bridge. Nevertheless the statements therein laid down are often peremptorily traversed in "Modern Bridge" by "Slam", so that a student is apt to be puzzled, and must in the last resort choose for himself between Codlin and Short—otherwise between "Hellespont" and "Slam." The one declares that there is no call for trumps in Bridge, but that what would mean a call in whist is a request for a continuation of the suit in which it is made. The other insists strongly on the value of this very call for trumps in Bridge. "Slam", again, is eloquent on the immense importance of fourth-best leads, whilst "Hellespont" deprecates any leads indicative of length, and would only lead a Jack from Ace, King, Jack and others, in no-trumps, if he had a card of re-entry. "Slam" would lead it in any circumstances, though he declines to start with the same card from Queen Jack ten and others, as his fellow-professor instructs you to do. It would be waste of time to trace all the differences between the two authors. Each has abundant and cogent reasons for his precepts, but we rather prefer "Hellespont", especially as he does not style his ideas "A Complete System of Instruction in the Game of Bridge", though his work is considerably nearer to being complete than "Slam's". Whether a really complete system of instruction can ever be invented and formulated for a game like Bridge, it is impossible to say, and whether it would add to the zest of the game is open to very serious doubt. In Turkey, where it has been played far longer than in England, no attempt has yet been made to produce such a system. It is true that residents in the Ottoman Empire are not usually much afflicted with the *cacoethes scribendi*, but they find they can win their liras and hold their own very well by judgment and constant practice without the help of systems.

When the Portland and Turf Clubs brought out "The Laws", the two leading Constantinople Clubs thought it might not be amiss to have a translation made of them. But it was immediately discovered that cases occurred almost daily which were quite unprovided for, and certain additions were proposed and adopted to meet them. Further experience however proved even the expanded rules totally inadequate, and a second enlarged Code was produced and published, which, though self-admittedly far from being complete, is still a considerable advance on the accepted English laws. Ex Oriente Lux, and as the rudimentary principles of Eastern play were first derided and scoffed at in England only to be finally adopted, it is quite possible that the improvements in the laws framed by Turkey may also find favour ultimately. Beyond laws, though, Ottoman professors do not commit themselves. In questions as to whether a particular line of play was right on a particular occasion, if a difference of opinion arises it can very soon be argued out; but a good Eastern player would probably demur to having any rigid line laid down for him to follow on all occasions, considering that he has an option and a discretion to exercise, inside certain limits; and as long as he recognises these, and keeps within them, the result alone proves whether he is right or wrong.

But in British Bridge books there is a suspicious tendency to fetter the players by defining very exactly certain points of play, in discards for instance or fourth-best leads, which, if persisted in, would gradually reduce, perhaps we ought to say elevate, Bridge to the scientifically dull level of perfected whist. One of the principal attractions of Bridge has hitherto been its comparative freedom from whist-like trammels, and it

seems a pity that Englishmen, as soon as they have learnt the game in the form which has rendered it popular, should at once set to work to deprive it of the elasticity which went far to render it so. The desire to teach others is praiseworthy, but a point has now been reached when works on Bridge become mere repetitions of already published "Conventions", "Hints" &c., with here and there personal opinions or experiences of generally anonymous authors, which are of no value to consistent players who have experiences and opinions of their own.

The Laws of Bridge having been, at least temporarily, crystallised by the seal of the great clubs, and the Principles and Conventions flogged to death long ago, there really is no call for new sticks to drum on the carcasses. As soon as the elements have been mastered, the best professors are the score-sheet and the pocket. These are far simpler, quicker and more effective than reams of print, and as the problem of what to lead on a partner's doubling a no-trumps declaration appears to defy the talent, we venture to recommend the test of playing the weakest suit lead for a few weeks at sixpenny points and five pounds on the rubber. This would probably solve it to the complete satisfaction of all concerned.

AMERICAN RAILWAY DEVELOPMENT.

I.—INTRODUCTORY.

FOR the purposes of these articles, the railways of America must be taken as represented by those of Canada and the United States. The two English-speaking communities have applied themselves with wonderful energy and success to the solution of the problems of transportation. Speaking generally, all that is best in American practice is to be found north of the Mexican border. The Latin countries of the south as a whole are content to follow with more or less efficiency American rather than European methods and they may fairly enough be here omitted from special consideration. Owing to a variety of causes the evolution of the railway has progressed more freely in North America than in any other part of the world. If so vast a country was ever to be opened up at all, there was urgent need of some means of transport more rapid than animal power and more elastic than canals; the large quantities of grain, ore, and other substances, the only profitable markets for which were situated far away, demanded facilities for moving masses of material in bulk cheaply; the population was scanty and fully alive to the benefits that would flow from improved intercourse. Instead of being compelled to buy out landowners at fancy prices and to execute heavy accommodation works at every point along the route of a proposed line companies were rather encouraged to advance by large gifts of land, which, if not so already, must sooner or later become extremely valuable; and neither by law nor by public opinion were they required to face an expenditure on luxuries of construction such as has so heavily burdened capital accounts in England. With much of the country flat and open in character the actual work of laying the track was generally easy and inexpensive.

The making of railways in North America as in England has been left to private enterprise. The legislature allowed everywhere the freest competition, and fortunately for the passenger as for the trader, the process of growth has gone on unchecked by international exclusiveness or the paramount claims of military expediency. In crossing the wide plains of Russia it is impossible not to be struck by their physical resemblance to the prairie lands west of the Ohio and the Great Lakes, but the similarity of the landscape only serves to sharpen the contrast between the railway ideals of the two countries. The traveller on entering or leaving the United States is not delayed by a break of gauge at the frontier; unless he is a person of doubtful antecedents, his coming and going will be without interest to the police; and he would as soon find a passport indispensable between Edinburgh and London as between Washington and Ottawa. Under conditions so favourable it is not surprising that railway development has taken place in North America

on a very large scale indeed. The mileage is nearly ten times that of the United Kingdom; and Canada, whose population scattered over the three thousand miles from ocean to ocean is hardly equal to that of London alone, has already opened a system as extensive as that of Great Britain. The work of construction was not taken up seriously in the Dominion until about fifty years ago, but in the United States, railways—or as they are there called “railroads”—were adopted as soon as their utility had been demonstrated; and, though the earliest American locomotive was imported from this side of the Atlantic and at first there was a natural tendency to rely on English experience, it very soon became apparent that American practice was to develop on lines of its own and to-day it differs in material respects from that of England. In passenger traffic the greater average length of journey caused more attention to be paid to questions of comfort; in the absence of railway class distinctions it was possible to provide long open cars allowing freedom of movement from end to end and general access to lavatory accommodation; in the north at any rate, the climate demanded an efficient method of heating; and the lack of an organised cab service in the great towns compelled the introduction of arrangements for dealing with luggage with which we in England are only now becoming familiar. Then followed sleeping, drawing-room, and dining cars, and in short practically all the improvements which, adopted gradually on this side of the water, have within the last generation done so much to lessen the tedium of European travel.

In mechanical progress also North America has taken the lead. It runs the fastest trains in the world, and invented the compressed air brake by which even the quickest trains can if necessary be stopped in not much more than their own length; the permanent way of the chief lines is at least as good as any to be found elsewhere; the working of signals and switches otherwise than by manual labour has been tried with success; and though the steam locomotive has been very highly perfected, great advances have also been made in connexion with electric traction by which it may some day be replaced. The high rates of wages paid and the keenness of competition have compelled the companies to seek every possible means for the reduction of working expenses. At sea it has been found that, other things being equal, the larger a steamship is the more economically it can be worked. Applying the same principle on land, the American lines increased very greatly the power of their engines and the weight of trains hauled, and both in passenger and freight service the results have been highly satisfactory. The present excellence of American rolling stock has been attained under conditions curiously different from those prevailing in England, where the object of every railway is to make its coaches and locomotives as different as possible from those of every other. This practice, so well illustrated by the English exhibits at Paris last year, gives the companies no doubt an advertisement of some value, the white carriages of the North Western for instance or the yellow engines of the Brighton line being instantly recognisable everywhere; but whether it is wise in every case to allow each newly appointed engineer to introduce a style of his own may be open to question. In America on the other hand the work of building passenger vehicles of the best description is largely concentrated in the hands of the great Pullman Company whose cars run over nearly all lines indiscriminately, while in the matter of locomotive power the railways are generally content to resort to a few large firms who have evolved certain standard types and are able to guarantee economic production.

In Canada one great line stretching right across the continent occupies a predominant position owning nearly half the total mileage of the country; but in the United States no company has as yet laid its tracks through from ocean to ocean, though the various amalgamations and working agreements which have been arranged within the last few months, entirely altering the railway map from New York to San Francisco, from Seattle to New Orleans, have in several instances brought many thousands of miles under one control. The era of unrestricted competition seems to be passing away and the consolidation

long ago foretold by Professor Hadley is rapidly taking place and has become the question of the hour. Hitherto the great trunk lines of the East have not carried on operations beyond Chicago or St. Louis and have been independent of the numerous prairie lines which have brought the traffic down to those points. Now however, as the West is becoming more settled, lines like the New York Central have come to the conclusion that it is worth their while to secure one or more connexions leading to the Pacific; and amongst those connexions themselves, as indeed amongst other railways throughout the country, a strong tendency towards unions or very close alliances has been developed; so that all the lines of the United States seem likely eventually to coalesce into a small number of well-defined and enormously powerful groups associated with the well-known names of Vanderbilt, Gould, Morgan, and a few other men of unlimited wealth and power.

THE REIGN OF THE CAD.

THERE is at least an element of pleasure in seeing the people at play; the gambols of Demos are not graceful, but in their energy and very roughness there is a broad fun and honest, hearty enjoyment which disarms the cynic and charms the goodhumourist. One looks on with amused sympathy, as one might watch an hippopotamus disporting himself in the water, and wonder at the uncouth movements of the great beast, enjoying himself after his kind. “Hippo” is a complimentary comparison, for he is pre-eminently and scrupulously a clean beast, loving water and feeding delicately. Look him in the mouth, and literally you will see the pink of cleanliness. And Demos is unquestionably becoming a clean beast too, and in his rough and tumble play (we decline to say “horse-play”, a term which sounds like an insult to an animal of undoubted nobility) there is nothing to exasperate or repel, if there may not be very much strongly to attract. Spend a day amongst working people holiday-making on the green or on the beach, and it is quite possible to come home in a good temper. You will probably have seen many little acts of real kindness, acts in their reality of a piece with everything else around them.

But go to almost any respectable watering-place, charged with visitors from London, and use your eyes and ears, and you will hardly return without an enhanced appreciation of the observing capacity of the poet who came to the pleasing conclusion that “only man is vile”. But he was hard to please, for he said that of unclothed savages, whose nakedness seems always to carry with it sincerity and at least some of the qualities of a gentleman. What would the poet have said, if we put these same savages in tight yellow boots and all the rest of the approved tourist costume, and they with their new clothes adopted new morals, pretending they were white and had never been coloured, trying to hide every virtue with which nature had endowed them and affecting every vice which was all they could see in civilisation? The familiar verse would never have been written: the poet’s feeling would have been too deep for words. He could look calmly at a savage and say he was vile, but look calmly at a cad and say what *he* was, that would be quite impossible. “Every prospect pleases and only man is vile” is the full line, and it shows that the villainess of the man was only moderate, for his critic was able at the same time to appreciate the beauty of the prospect. Had the figure in the foreground been a civilised twentieth-century cad instead of an undraped savage, he could never have noticed, still less recorded, the beauty of the scenery: the splodge on the fair sheet would have spoilt everything for him. He would just have turned away with a sickening sense of the cursedness of everything: and said—and certainly written—nothing. Get out from Eastbourne or Hastings with the intent to escape from the crowd, to some pet creek or corner of your own, where it is possible, losing sight of houses and men and bands and everything else insufferable, to be alone with the sea and the cliff. Round the promontory where you know your haven lies and see sprawling on the sand right in the middle of everything one or a couple of them,

pipe in mouth, discussing the exact number of "centuries" or "ducks" Abel has made during the last ten years, and could any man in those circumstances notice the glory of the sea or the outline of the cliff? Time, maybe, writes no wrinkle on the blue brow of the sea, but the cad writes many. The sea is never itself where humans congregate and in these days wherever humans foregather the cad is in bold relief. His tracks on the sand and even in the water are as certain, as unvarying, as the tidal movements of the sea itself. Take any virgin coast, unspotted of the human world, and the moment the cad prints his toe upon the sand, uprises with all the vulgarity of rapid growth the hideous erection, the soul, nerve centre, and heart of a watering-place, sometimes calling itself a casino, sometimes a Kursaal, sometimes a pier, and then comes the inevitable band poor and tawdry as the building. Sea-side vandalism is an eternal type. It is crushing even to think of the unplumbed abyss of the cad's mind, to whom the eternal ocean with its infinite store of large associations simply does not suggest anything connected with nature at all, but merely "amusement" in the meaning of his own dialect, a very poor form, in fact a sort of exudation of town life. From the touch of vulgarity the sea seems to shrink abashed, creeping in stealthily between the joists of piers, in and out bathing machines, and beating listlessly against the concrete wall of the "parade". Sometimes his outraged dignity rises in its strength, and with mighty roar he reasserts his real self and clears away the encumbrances of civilisation, the defiling and defacing of the cad, as when he swept off the chain pier at Brighton. But the sea is beaten; it relapses into resigned submission, and the cad rises again to the top, and all his architectural iniquities with him. The sea can drown a cad, or myriads of them, but it can never shake him off: he has conquered the ocean.

The sea-side is not his only habitat: far from it; but there he is writ largest and yet contemptibly small, shown up by nature in her noblest aspect; and at this time of year it is there he is most in evidence. But go much farther afield and you will find him there too: the Alps know him well and the Rhine and the Rhone and the Tiber. Indeed we have no doubt that if we scaled the summit of the Mountains of the Moon, we should find him astride, studying Milo's tips in an outspread "Daily Mail". Should Commander Scott win the South Pole, the penguins may look forward in very few years to hearing other song than theirs, when some Mr. Dunville takes his turn at the Antarctic Music Hall. The penguins will probably migrate in alarm. The river again has long submitted to the cad, who rides old Father Thames as a cockney sportsman might ride or think he rode a broken-down hunter. So thoroughly does the cad domineer the Thames near London that one instinctively associates the names of those noble reaches with the cheap, the garish, the fast, with the vulgarity of Tottenham Court Road and an appalling false accent as much as with majestic trees and broad green slopes and the infinite peace of a great river's flow.

It is significant that it is in his amusements that you know the cad. The dignity of labour, real work, is the one thing which is proof against him. Work is his master, and while he is at work the cad is all withdrawn. You shall find the most offensive and insufferable person on the sands a quiet reasonable youth at his desk. No man is a cad while honestly at work. He may be possibly worse things; he may be, and may seem to be, wicked, while at work, but he cannot be a cad.

This might suggest an escape from the tyranny under which this country and the age groan: but it is not a hopeful escape. Man cannot work for ever, and the more fashionable view is rather towards his not working at all. In the matter of the cad, who, indeed, will show us any good? Analysis tends rather to despair. For it is clear that the cad is a product of civilisation, not that all civilisation grows him, but he is never produced by Nature. Another thing that seems clear is that he is a town growth, and in particular comes from London. He has of course, invaded the country and the agricultural counties by now but he did not come from there. Also, we fear he is "Anglo-Saxon".

At any rate wherever the Anglo-Saxon is, there is he. You do not find him among the Continental natives as here; but we have heard that there are cads in America. All these things are in his favour. Political conditions are also in his interest. Unhappily, he has got so far as to make it pay to kotow to him, and poets and writers and publishers and mummies and statesmen and school boards are not slow to do it. And education? Is that to be the saviour of society? Genuine, it would be. We do not think a really well educated man can be a cad; a half-educated man can with difficulty be other. There is no need to go into the oft-discussed refinements of distinction between cads and bounders and snobs; but there is a general recognition that a cad cannot be a gentleman, and we do not think he can be a really educated man. A man may be a snob and yet a gentleman: at least that is the English view, attributable perhaps to an insular instinct of self-defence. We have known some highly intellectual men that were emphatically snobs, but no one would call them cads. Higher education would stem the tide of caddism, but that is not what we have. Smatterings, long words for "science", progress, "accomplishments" without manners, that is the very making of the cad, and that is what we give to most of the nation's children. That the spread of what we have been pleased to call "education" has enormously developed the cad type is patently true. The whole order of things seems to be conspiring to establish irrevocably the reign of the cad. He will go on from conquest to conquest. Everything above him will be levelled to his lowness; everything underneath him will ruthlessly be kept there. His pattern only will be recognised, while the world slowly subsides to the dull monotony and the dead level of the average man. At last the cad will sit supreme over all and, grinning, smoking a penny cigar,

Reign tremendous o'er the conquered world.

CORRESPONDENCE.

"BLOCK DWELLINGS" AND "OVERCROWDING".

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Grove End Road, S. John's Wood, N.W.

29 July, 1901.

SIR,—The evils of overcrowding, and of block dwellings are now so patent, and so palpable, that to "the man in the street", even, it has become "easy to be eloquent" in their exposure.

Last week I ventured to argue that the modern panacea for overcrowding, viz. the provision of huge and lofty block dwellings, covering every inch of available space, for the accommodation of a population to be removed from an already overcrowded area ten times the size of that of the block dwellings, rather than the true cure, must indeed be a hideous error, fruitful of future trouble.

It is necessary to stop the destruction of what remains of the healthy, and the beautiful in London;—put an end to every encroachment on existing air spaces;—prevent the further erection of massive, and lofty structures, with their train of evil consequences, in the lessened supply of light, air, and sun, and their added pollution of the atmosphere from innumerable new chimneys;—preserve from attack the width of streets and roads, and determinedly defend all frontage lines;—hold in abeyance any clauses in the Building, or other, Act, which may be contrary to this end; subordinate the "liberty of the subject" to the welfare of the community; make the statutes subservient to the public weal, rather than hold the people slaves to an imperfect, partial, and short-sighted law.

The rest of the problem is not so easy of solution, must be approached with all due hesitation, and, necessarily, can take but brief and general form. The trouble is overcrowding,—too many people for the present supply of light, air, and space,—resulting high rents, bad health, degraded lives &c. all too evident without further recital; and withal an increasing population. Will it be platitude to suggest expansion, under proper supervision? A heterogeneous London has developed itself in haphazard fashion, without

control or guidance, without order, plan, or method,—it has become a great wart or wen on the fair flesh of England,—will it be too obvious to urge avoidance of past errors?—to take the building of London out of the hands of the ignoramus, the jerry-builder,—the person whose horizon is bounded by the four corners of his petty plot? Is it too soon, or too late to plead for the appointment of a competent and educated board of control,—comprised of architects, sanitarians, artists, and sound business men,—a Witenagemote above suspicion? To give these power “to bind and to loose”, to expand the City with its expanding population, to extinguish the jerry-builder, to suppress the tricks and subterranean devices of the sitemonger, to veto the embryo slums now springing up round London, and by the exercise of a wise prevision, to plan and lay out the new city on broad and healthy lines, looking always to the future? And then, having relieved the pressure on the old city, to proceed to thin out its houses, widen its streets, create new open spaces for gardens, build better houses for the poor, and thus evolve a metropolis worthy of the British race?

Factories requiring water carriage could be placed down the river, those dependent on railways on suitable points on main trunk lines, electric trams and railways could be made to overcome the obstacles of distance.

In mediæval days the ramparts fixed the limits of the town, quarters were cramped, streets narrowed, houses grew taller and taller, and the plague swept in and out at will,—to-day, without such restriction, why should not the city spread, fairly, sweetly, and openly for miles and miles? A hundred years hence, what will be the population? With this in view why not build honestly, soundly, lastingly, with wise regard for beauty in design, so to fill the everyday life of the worker with objects of interest, and counter-attraction to mischief, and thus rear up a new and self-respecting race?

Yours faithfully,

WM. ROSS.

“THE LESSON.”

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

93 Shaftesbury Road, W.

SIR,—Referring to Mr. Kipling's verse, you say “stamped with the great Hall-mark of the ‘Times’ it goes forth as the voice of the nation”. Difficult as it is to believe that such is the case, that the nation has become thus demoralised it would seem that “Mr. Kipling's descent” is really for the time being the nation's descent. For as far as I have seen, yours is the only authoritative rebuke I have read! There is here really a very deep and solemn lesson indeed if the nation would only take it to heart. For it must be remembered that the day before “The Lesson”, the “Times” solemnly prepared its readers and the country for it by announcing its intended publication. I for one had thought therefore that something at least befitting so grave an occasion would have appeared.

Judge of the shock I received when I scanned the doggerel you so justly condemn. It was as if one had looked up into the pulpit expecting to see a deeply moved seer uttering some grave and godly warning—and lo! the habiliments of a clown and his mocking laugh—“here we are again”! One could understand the nation being struck dumb with astonishment for a day or two, but that the guilty silence after the lapse of days should only be broken by your protest is, I repeat, *The Lesson*, and not that supposed to be contained in the pitiable banter of Mr. Kipling,

Yours, &c.

A. E. CLARKE.

A BRITISH EMPEROR.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

10 Cheyne Gardens, Chelsea, 5 August.

SIR,—Your admirable article on this subject contains as in a nutshell the case for the title, “British Emperor”. An Empire supposes an Emperor, who need not necessarily (e.g. the late Emperor of Brazil) be a military person on a frantic steed, crossing the Alps with his sabre at an impossible angle. Moreover, the supreme title of Emperor exactly suits the position of a sovereign,

who stands in somewhat different relations to different parts of his dominions. Thus the Austro-Hungarian monarch styles himself “Emperor of Austria, King of Hungary, Bohemia, Galicia, Lodomeria, and Illyria”, and manages to get all these designations on to a florin. William II. is both “German Emperor” and “King of Prussia”. The title of “Emperor of Germany”, which his grandfather at one time thought of taking, was strongly opposed by Bavaria on the ground that it implied territorial sovereignty over the non-Prussian States. That of “Emperor of the Germans” was offered by the Frankfort National Assembly to that vain rhetorician, Frederick William IV., in 1849 and by him refused, partly on account of its democratic origin.

I am, yours obediently,

W. MILLER.

A NEW PLACE.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Pall Mall, S.W.

SIR,—I am induced to offer the suggestion of a far more effective form of memorial than the one adopted, and of a far more suitable site. Even if not associated with the Memorial at all, it would form a most striking improvement of so obvious a kind that it is astonishing that it has not been thought of.

Parliament Square furnishes material for laying out an imposing Place or square. The grass plots, railings &c. should be removed and the whole asphalted. There is a large plot where Canning's statue rises: behind which is a block consisting of only two houses. This could be taken into the new Place and would form a fine expanse—free and open to the crossing carriages and omnibuses, as on the *Place de la Concorde*. In the centre might be raised the Queen's statue—designed in monumental fashion somewhat after the pattern of the great Frederick's at Berlin. The existing quadrille of Prime Ministers might be rearranged. The superiority of this suggestion over the selected design must be evident to all. In the heart of the city—in its most conspicuous place, looking at the Houses of Parliament and Westminster Hall, with the Abbey behind, and the new and stately offices on the flank—the statue of the late Queen would dominate all round it, and attract the attention of the crowds passing and repassing. In any case the existing Place is poor and small, and cut up in an absurd way.—Yours,

PERCY FITZGERALD.

THE KING'S DECLARATION.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Norton Rectory, Bury S. Edmund's, 30 July, 1901.

SIR,—The latest proposed form for the King's Declaration contains the words: “I solemnly . . . declare that I do believe that in the sacrament of the Lord's Supper there is not any Transubstantiation of the elements of the bread and wine into the body and blood of Christ at or after the consecration thereof by any person whatsoever”. You have already inserted a letter from me calling attention to the necessity of words in the Declaration referring with disapprobation to the doctrine of Transubstantiation being in strict accord with the authorised definition of that doctrine in the Catechism of the Council of Trent. That Catechism defines Transubstantiation, with respect to one of the sacred elements, as “the change of the substance of the bread into the substance of the body of Christ”. This is very different from the suggested language of the proposed Declaration.

There are and have been Roman Catholics who, contented with the definition of the Catechism of the Council of Trent, interpret it in a purely spiritual manner. Such Roman Catholics, with their spiritual views of the Divine Presence in the Eucharist, could not accept any words which speak of a change “into the body and blood of Christ”. They limit the change to substance only, and so the Presence they recognise is a spiritual one. Other Roman Catholics, it is true, indulge in language like that proposed to be used in the Declaration; but such are extremists, who like to put forward every doctrine in extravagant terms, going beyond the limits of their Church's definitions. They apparently think it a manifestation of greatest faith to

accept forms of words which imply greatest impossibilities. In a Royal Declaration, however, language which wanders into erroneous overstatement surely ought not to appear, and reference to a Roman Catholic doctrine, if made at all, should be made only in terms accordant with those in which that doctrine is authoritatively defined. A truth-loving Roman Catholic, whose zeal does not induce him to go beyond the authorised teaching of his Church's Councils, could very easily take upon his lips the suggested words of the Declaration, as in doing so he would only be repudiating an unauthorised exaggeration of the doctrine of Transubstantiation, the doctrine whereby his Church in philosophical language attempts to explain what the English and other branches of the Church Catholic leave undefined, as a Spiritual Presence, to be spiritually discerned.

Yours faithfully,

H. N. GRIMLEY.

AN UNADJUSTED INDIAN CLAIM.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Calcutta, 1901.

SIR,—In continuation of my last letter, I crave your further indulgence on grounds of whose finding favour in your eyes I cannot, in view of their importance, help feeling hopeful. Let me express the hesitation I feel in obtruding my humble personality on the public, as though it possessed some recognised authority, and plead for my persistence in this advocacy the excuse of a deep conviction of its justice spurred by the hope of its final success and despair of its adoption by abler hands. In his memorable statement in the House of Lords on 15 May, 1893, Lord Northbrook entered fully into the history of Indian military home charges from 1822 to 1884, and, after detailing the modifications which they had undergone, and giving their proper places, in his expert survey of the field covered by them, to effective and non-effective charges, he declared that, under "a most complicated and extraordinary" arrangement, "the actual pensions India was supposed to be called upon to pay in consequence of the abolition of purchase in the British Army were capitalised, and the capital value year by year was charged upon India by the British Exchequer", with the result of an "enormous increase" in the charges on the Indian revenue for the fourteen years between 1870 and 1884, after which this particular surcharge ceased. I earnestly solicit close and discriminating attention to these facts, which have never been called in question. Whether the charge here specified was technically classed with others of an entirely and essentially different nature and thus disguised beyond amateur detection in the accounts, or remained isolated as it ought to have been, and always easily traceable during and since the period of its currency, Lord Northbrook—who derived his intimate knowledge of its precise quality and of its exact relation to other charges from the twofold coign of advantage of a Viceroy who had protested against it, and a Chairman of a Commission who had analysed the War Office defence of it—authoritatively defined the charge (1) as an *annual payment of a capitalised value*; (2) as a *payment demanded on account of the Purchase System*; and (3) as a *payment begun in 1870 and ending in 1884*, and thus standing disentangled from all earlier and later payments.

The importance of these characteristic details cannot be overestimated in considering our present relations to the whole subject.

Lord Northbrook was followed by Lord Kimberley who, while making his strange confessions of the pitiful helplessness of the India Office in Treasury scrimmages over appropriations and rebates, neither contradicted the plain assertion that the payment was made on account of the abolished purchase system, nor offered any apology for the financial phenomenon of a capitalised value, essentially of the nature of a composition or quittance, being exacted from year to year for fourteen years. Lord Northbrook having, however, complained that he had sought in vain for any satisfactory justification of the surcharge in published official documents, Viscount Cross proceeded to throw what further light on the subject could be extracted

from his brief allusion to a "report" which "was private" and which "could not be placed on the table". Now the privacy of official records derives its sole sanction from public convictions of impending danger, and cannot therefore in any single instance be perpetual, and need never outlive its parent peril. If explanation was at all possible of an anomalous transaction, bearing on its face the stamp of an injustice which opened its wings and flew on the first serious sound of challenge, and any hypothesis whose colourless complexion is negated by the strongly tinted terms of Lord Northbrook's reproach, the Indian taxpayer was justified in expecting an exhaustive one from the Indian Expenditure Commission. The Commission has made its report but, while dealing with ordinary military charges from paragraph 252 to paragraph 290, and skimming over the extraordinary charge in question in paragraph 291—and *thus differentiating the latter from the former*—that report has furnished no explanation on the point on which one was most needed. What is very curtly said on that point is this:—"From 1870-1 to 1883-4 the Government of India capitalised and paid down its share of the pensions granted in each year to officers and men of the British Army. Capitalisation then ceased and from 1 April 1884 the Government of India has paid the proportion attributable to service in India of the pensions granted subsequently to that date". The question is at once suggested by this further endorsement of Lord Northbrook's statement, why all mention is so carefully avoided of the precise difference between the amounts paid in each of the fourteen years from 1870-1 to 1883-4, and that paid in 1884-5. Wide variations in pensions of any two contiguous years such as 1883-4 and 1884-5 are inadmissible, and any variation at all calls for the clearest exposition. If the difference here hinted at between the payments of two years under a head of charge, the real facts covered by which have undergone no material change in that period, is arithmetically expressible, some expression of it was surely due to the Indian interests confided to the Commission in its fiduciary quality. Its report therefore seems defective both in failing to mention the amount of the difference, and omitting to furnish any reason for the departure of the War Office from the rule of accounts according to which a capitalisation is recognised as a single deposit from whose interest a recurring periodical charge is met and not an annually recurring payment. Proof of substantial equality in the amounts paid all through could alone excuse any preference for one way of making up accounts over another; whereas any marked difference in the amounts must give birth to instant suspicion, however unjust, of a cooked account. *Any excess in older over later pension payments would surely of itself establish an unquestionable right to a refund.*

Anyone who has read this letter so far with care will see why the result of the debate on Mr. Caine's proposed amendment on the Address on 25 February, so far from being conclusive on the issues raised in this letter, has little bearing on them. The basis of that debate was the recommendation in paragraph 142 of the Commission's Report, where a so-called grant to the Indian Government is suggested under four particular heads of charge, none of which has any connexion with the surcharge on account of officers' pensions made between 1870 and 1884. The reduction of Indian charges by £293,000 is by no means one of which any person interested in India will think lightly. But so long as the India Office treats the whole question as one of "transferred (present) payments", and can occupy the public imagination with the beauty of the dissolving view in which the British benevolently takes the place of the India Exchequer, so long will the essence of the particular question I have striven to rescue from oblivion be ignored, and justice be left undone.

Sir H. Fowler's dictum that "there were no arrears" need not be misread by those who appreciate his gentle censure of the Commission for having "evaded" their whole work and made unintelligible recommendations; but is his estimate of the present difficulties of the Chancellor of the Exchequer a good reason, or any reason at all, for indefinitely postponing the redress of an old wrong?

W. C. MADGE.

REVIEWS.

HUXLEY'S SCIENTIFIC WORK.

"The Scientific Memoirs of Thomas Henry Huxley."
 Edited by Sir M. Foster and Professor Ray
 Lankester. Vol. III. London: Macmillan. 1901.
 30s. net.

THE third volume of this splendid collection of Huxley's scientific work contains memoirs published between the years 1864 and 1871. In this period Huxley was still occupied chiefly by pure science; the press of the battle for Darwinism was over, and he had not yet entered deliberately upon the exposition of philosophical and metaphysical subjects. He had become the leader of zoological science in England, and was well on the way to become the chief representative of all science in England. During a considerable portion of this period he was president of the Geological and of the Anthropological Societies, and, towards the end of it, he occupied the presidential chair of the British Association at Liverpool. His official duties consisted chiefly of work on fossils, and, accordingly, a great part of this volume is occupied with treatises on fossil forms. There are elaborate and careful accounts of fossil cephalopods, pisces, amphibia, reptiles, birds and mammals, all notable for the solid and novel information that they contain, and for the luminous fashion in which the new fossils, brought before Huxley, were made to expand, correct or elucidate the observations of other writers. Professor Owen had been a voluminous contributor to the same branch of science, and Huxley, no doubt mindful of Owen's obscurantist conduct in the Darwinian controversies, dotted the "i"s and crossed the "t"s on the rather numerous occasions in which he found Owen's published work to be erroneous. Among these palæontological memoirs the series relating to the ancestry of birds is specially interesting; to Cope and Gegenbauer, no doubt, is due the credit of selecting from among fossil reptiles the dinosaurs rather than the pterodactyls as the nearest representatives of the ancestors of birds, notwithstanding the distracting fact that the pterodactyls were flying creatures whereas the dinosaurs moved about by running and hopping. But it was Huxley who gave the first clear and satisfactory demonstration of the close affinity existing between birds and reptiles in general and who in the fullest way exposed the avian affinities of the dinosaurs.

Huxley approached the extremely difficult subject of the classification of birds from the point of view of a palæontologist dealing with skeletal structures rather than from that of a general anatomist, and his conclusions are contained in the well-known memoir, perhaps the best he wrote, "On the Classification of Birds and on the Taxonomic Value of certain of the Cranial Bones observable in that Class". The group of birds is a very large assemblage of living creatures presenting extremely narrow anatomical differences: the anatomy of an ostrich would serve admirably as an introduction to the anatomy of a humming-bird; an eagle and a duck are closely similar in nerve, muscle and bone. Systematists have differed widely in the nature of their attempts to arrange this large collection of similar forms in natural divisions. Huxley entered on the subject for the immediate purpose of a course of lectures at the Royal Institution, and his examination of the skeletal system led him to a valuable contribution to anatomical knowledge, the discovery and demarcation of the different types of bony palates. On this basis he founded his system of classification, a system that was more exact and more fertile than any of the earlier attempts. It was at once objected to the proposed classification that it was founded upon one character. The editors of this collected edition have wisely reprinted an interesting and little-known "Reply" to such a criticism. The critic, writing in "The Ibis", a journal devoted to ornithology, had remarked that a "really natural arrangement can be made only by taking an aggregate of characters" and Huxley expressing general agreement with the view replied in the first place that while his examination of the bony palate had given him the clue to the arrangement of birds that he proposed, he had availed himself of many other

characters to corroborate and define his divisions. But he added that "the modifications of a solitary organ will sometimes afford indications of affinity of great value throughout a whole class, or even sub-kingdom". He made the extremely important statement, a statement often lost sight of, that his proposed arrangement of birds was not to be taken as final but merely a stage on the way towards a final result. "All classification by logical categories, such as that which I have attempted in birds, is more or less artificial, and must be regarded as simply a first and most important stage in the progress towards the ultimate goal, which is a genetic classification—a classification, that is, which shall express the manner in which living beings have been evolved one from the other."

In this volume is reprinted the memoir "On some Organisms living at great Depths in the North Atlantic Ocean", a memoir in itself of no great importance but interesting because of certain notorious matters which arose from it. Specimens of the mud brought up from great depths of the Atlantic were sent for investigation to Huxley by those engaged in exploring the Atlantic bottom in connexion with the proposed laying of a cable. Huxley found in the mud a number of curious crystalline bodies, occurring singly in a form which he termed "coccoliths" or cohering to form "coccospheres". He investigated minutely the structure of these, describing and figuring them, and explaining that while they themselves were inorganic they were the products of living organisms. He compared his own observations with those of other writers, paying special attention to the investigations of Sorby who had found similar bodies in chalk. So far, and what we have stated accounts for nine-tenths of the paper, Huxley's work has been amply corroborated by later writers. There is no doubt as to the existence of these bodies or as to their formation by living organisms of a simple kind. Huxley noticed however, that there was a curious gelatinous matrix in which these bodies were embedded, and he suggested that this matrix might be protoplasmic, in which case the little masses with their enclosed calcareous granules would closely resemble those primitive forms of life described by Haeckel as Monera. On this supposition he named the imagined organisms Bathybius. Many years later, the naturalists on the "Challenger" discovered that Huxley was wrong in his supposition as to the nature of the matrix. He had compared its appearance with that of dead protoplasm, and so far he was right. But it had never been alive and was nothing more than a gelatinous precipitate formed when spirit was poured into the sea-water mud which entangled the coccoliths and coccospheres in its meshes. There was not an organism corresponding to his name Bathybius; the coccospheres and coccoliths were due to a different kind of organism for which another name was necessary. It was not exactly a case of the Iliad having been written "not by Homer but by another fellow of the same name"; there was no such fellow as Bathybius, but there was a very similar fellow responsible for the coccoliths, and this very similar fellow was given another name. The non-existent Bathybius, however, had achieved in the meantime a very wide fame. Haeckel had employed the term "Urschleim", primitive slime, as descriptive of his monerids; and Huxley, in his single paragraph relating to Bathybius, had cited the term. In some irresponsible fashion there had arisen out of this the conception that Huxley had discovered in the bottom of the Atlantic a vast mass of formless life, the inchoate and heaving origin of all the higher forms. That the Atlantic mud, like all other mud of fresh or salt water, does contain, except where special unfavourable conditions prevent their existence, countless numbers of the simplest known forms of life is now abundantly proved. But Bathybius is not among these; Bathybius is no more than a chemical accident. It was the late Duke of Argyll who made the great discovery that this non-existence of Bathybius not only destroyed Huxley's claim to eminence but was a fatal blow to the theory of evolution, and it is interesting to see how completely the good Duke had been befogged by whoever were his scientific advisers.

This third volume of Huxley's "Scientific Memoirs"

contains a considerable portion of his valuable contributions to anthropology. Huxley was one of the last travellers who came in contact with savages wholly unacquainted with white men, with the use of firearms and the other contributions of civilisation to savage life. He had been deeply impressed by what he had seen, but for years he was occupied almost entirely by zoological work, and, apparently, it was after his study of the man-like apes that he turned again to the special study of man. There is little doubt that only the pressure of the manifold work of his crowded life prevented him from completing and publishing an extended study of man, and we have reason to believe that there were found among his papers materials showing that he had proceeded very much further than was known with such an investigation. The contributions which were published, however, are ample to place Huxley very high among anthropologists. It is significant that so early as 1865 in an address delivered at the Royal Institution Huxley gave definite and incontrovertible reasons for the proposition that "philology cannot afford any basis for ethnological classification". In a second important memoir, published in 1867, he gave the results of a close comparison of two skulls, the one extremely "brachycephalic" or round-headed, the other extremely "dolichocephalic" or long-headed, and made this comparison the basis of a scrutiny of the mode of estimating cranial differences then in vogue. Several smaller memoirs on the physical characters of the inhabitants of the Americas, of India and of Britain, as well as a great paper on the "Geographical Distribution of the Chief Modifications of Mankind", a paper in which the Aryan theory was definitely abandoned, show how much attention Huxley was giving to anthropology and make the regret deeper that he left so much material in an uncompleted condition.

One of the last republications in the present volume is Huxley's Address to the British Association at Liverpool in 1871, and shows him at his best as a popular expositor of difficult scientific problems. He explained the work of such early observers as Harvey and Redi on the mode of origin of the simpler living things, and showed the gradual establishment of the scientific doctrine of Biogenesis, the occurrence of living things only as the direct descendants of other living things. Having thoroughly aroused the interest of his audience in the purely scientific problem, he passed on to a favourite subject, and showed how the pursuit of abstract knowledge had gradually led to discoveries of immense practical benefit, and described the then novel work on the causation of many diseases by organic parasites. This Address was prophetic of much of the work that Huxley did in the later years of his life. He became the great expositor to the nation of the advantage of science, of the practical benefits to be derived by encouragement on the most liberal scale of scientific research.

THE TRAGEDY OF THE COUNTRY PARISH.

"Before the Great Pillage." By Augustus Jessopp. London: Unwin. 1901. 7s. 6d.

THE full story of the English parish is to tell. Canon Jessopp has however done much to clear the way of its historian in this charming volume, which every lover of the merry England of the old Arcadian day should read. Historically, as our author shows, the English parish is not, what our modern legislators would make it, a place for which a separate overseer is, or can be appointed, nor is it, as some Oxford historians have imagined, a survival of the German mark, nor has it, in its original conception *pace* Diocesan Chancellors, the slightest connexion with ratepayers or rates. It is, as this book well puts it, a distinctly religious organisation, distinct in its origin, its working and its aims from the township, the manor and the tithing. (By the way we cannot accept even the concession to current views which this book makes, that the parish was in fact composed of the same personnel, man for man, as the manor or the township. In the counties of Southern England, the boundaries of the vill or township may, as a matter of fact generally coincide with

those of the parish; in the North, as Charles II.'s Act on Overseers shows, the average parish embraces several townships.) To her old parochial system (as Dr. Jessopp explains) more than to aught else, England owes her liberties and her civilisation. The more the records of the English manor are studied, the more clear it becomes, that, so far as temporal law and custom went, the English peasantry of the knightly years fared hardly, if at all better, than did the peasants of any other country of Western Europe. What gave them some degree of independence and self-respect was the fact that, as members of a parish, they were free men and free women. The custom of the country threw on the parishioners the burden of keeping the nave of the church in repair, and of supplying the books and ornaments for church services, and this duty was sternly enforced by the archdeacon, the bishop's fiscal official. Yet the duty in time became a labour of love, as the parish folks grew to see that the Church, its services, its processions, its holidays were the one refuge and solace of their lives, and these compulsory payments were increased by voluntary gifts and bequests. On the eve of the "glorious Reformation" the aggregate of the property of the parishes, (represented by lands and houses, flocks and herds, as well as by crucifixes, and pyxes, vestments and missals) all vested in the people's representatives the churchwardens, and not in the clerical order, equalled some millions of pounds sterling.

The parish churches were the chief glory of merry England—there were none like them in Europe. But what of the parsons? In his chapter on the Parish Priest in England before the Reformation, our author proves that they were worthy of their churches. Two very interesting facts about them has he here unearthed. One is that (if the Norfolk records may be taken as typical of the whole country down to the period of the Black Death) the country incumbents were drawn from the aristocracy—the other, that practically the will of every mediæval parson left a legacy to his church. A great many parsons too in their testaments remembered the begging friars. Of the horrible sacrilege and loot that in the black days of the "sad boy king" robbed the poor man of his heritage, Dr. Jessopp writes in tones of scathing indignation. "Religion had as much to do with this business, as religion had to do with the September massacres in Paris in 1792. In the latter case the mob went raving with the lust of blood; in the former case the richer classes went raving with the lust of gain" (p. 63). To this sacrilege we owe the Poor Law. In modern times the deeds of these robbers are solemnly quoted in our Courts Christian as a commentary on the Book of Common Prayer: so much for legal Pecksniffianism—the voice of the plundered poor speaks to-day in Dr. Jessopp, as it spoke of yore in Cobbett.

Of the period between the pillage and our own day Dr. Jessopp says next to nothing. Some day we trust he will tell us the story of Puritanism and the Parish. In his sad chapter "The Cry of the Villages" he shows that for the rural parish the nineteenth century has done next to naught and that neither the School Board nor the Parish Council can stay the rural emigration. The squire, the parson, the farmer cannot help the poor, for they are themselves "hanging by the eyelids to their ever-waning resources". Will, he asks, the wealth of England not give to the peasantry water to drink, houses to live in, resting-places in their weariness, nursing-places in their sore sickness, common halls, where they may get amusement, diversion, instruction and rational companionship?

THE CHAMPION OF PORT ROYAL.

"Pascal." Par Émile Boutroux. Paris: Hachette et Cie. 1900.

PERHAPS there is no great writer on serious matters who has been subject to judgments so diverse as Blaise Pascal. By one powerful section of the Roman Church he has been regarded as the arch enemy travestying doctrines which he either wilfully perverted or did not take the trouble to understand. On the other hand Leibnitz reproaches him with a too exclusive partisanship with Romanism. Voltaire saw in him

"un fou sublime né un siècle trop tôt", thereby implying that he was by nature a sceptic forced into orthodoxy by his surroundings. Chateaubriand brands him as a "calumniator of genius who has left us an immortal lie" while Bayle hailed him as "one of the world's sublimest spirits". To have won recognition of such quality from minds of such calibre the man must have been himself supremely interesting, and a time has surely arrived when the problem of his life may be approached, even by his adversaries, with calmness and the respect due to genius.

Blaise Pascal was born at Clermont-Ferrand in June 1623. His father held a high office in the provincial administration and conducted his household on lines of decent worldliness, harmonising the practices of social urbanity with the doctrines of the Gospel. Pascal's mind thus acquired early a taste both for serious things and the best society and these associations have left their stamp on all his writings. When a lad he devoted himself to the study of physics and mathematics but he was in no sense an adept in the classics, though he had a certain knowledge of Latin. When we consider the nature of the writings by which he acquired his fame, it seems strange indeed that neither theology nor philosophy should have engaged his attention, but so it was. He picked up enough of the former from his friends of Port Royal to enable him to conduct controversy in the "Provincial Letters"; and the "Pensées" are the fruit of profound reflexion and spontaneous thought, but they are by no means the outcome of a wide culture in theology. In mathematics he early showed extraordinary precocity. At sixteen he writes an essay on conic sections which was never published but later on was communicated to Leibnitz and won his enthusiastic admiration. When he was twenty-three he underwent his first "conversion" and on a visit to Paris in the following year commenced that connexion with the Port Royalists to which he was subsequently to owe so large a part of his reputation. During this time he was pursuing with ardour his experiments in physics. He combats the long-accepted theory that "nature abhors a vacuum" and proves by trials made on the Puy de Dôme and the Tour S.-Jacques that the presence of the atmosphere accounts for much that had formerly been complacently attributed to the well-worn formula. We cannot doubt that this striking demonstration by experiments of the fallibility of philosophical speculation had definite results on his religious convictions.

He had plunged again into the world and found many friends among the idle but intellectual sections of society. We find him, after his father's death, withstanding the wish of his sister Jacqueline, who had shared his first "conversion", to enter the convent at Port Royal, but she finally took the veil in June 1653. Pascal still clung to his studies and his friends in the world and seems about this time to have become absorbed in the study of Montaigne whose ideas (and even words) were to exercise so strong an influence over his own writings, though we owe the "Pensées" to the intellectual repulsion excited by the genial sceptic's conclusions. In 1653, when he had reached the age of thirty, he is contemplating the acceptance of an appointment and marriage but in that year occurred the event which is known as his "second conversion", and he ceased to be of the world and the last nine years of his life were those of a recluse. In November 1655 he had some vision or revelation of the relations of God to man, which may be paralleled in many other cases of fervent natures given up to intense meditation and converse with the unseen; he retired to Port Royal and whether there or in Paris till his death in 1662 he devoted himself to religious practices and speculations.

Apart from the "Provincial Letters" and the "Pensées" Pascal has left little to interest mankind as distinct from scientific specialists. Had he died before his second conversion, he would have been known to posterity as nothing but a natural philosopher of astonishing attainments who died too young; but the dispute between the Jesuits and M. Arnault and his followers gave Pascal the opportunity of becoming the protagonist on behalf of the latter which revealed him to the world as the greatest master of irony and the

most terrible dialectician ever encountered in controversial lists.

Without distributing praise and blame to the parties in a discussion which has been too narrowly judged from the point of view of the Jansenists owing to the overmastering genius of their champion, we must concede that the popular Jesuit confessor of the day carried to extravagant and dangerous lengths the benevolent doctrine that no man should be driven to despair. In its origin this view was a reaction against the monstrous theories of Calvin and as such should be regarded. It was perverted by fashionable clerics into an excuse for worldliness and even crime. Between theologians, and purely as casuistry, the discussion might have raged with varying fortune, but Pascal took it up on new lines and handled it as a man speaking to men, as M. Boutroux admirably says, "a question of the schools was thus to transform itself into an appeal to the good sense, the conscience, and the sense of straightforwardness which are to be found in every human soul". The Letters themselves cover the entire range of controversial style, they vary from light persiflage to fiery denunciation and if the earlier ones are rather ironical as to particular absurdities, the later ones are a stream of the bitterest invective based on intense conviction and directed against a whole school. In the end the "Provincial Letters" display themselves as no mere exercise in dialectic but as a serious effort to destroy a system which the writer thought would prove in time destructive to religion. That he never wavered in this opinion is clear from the fact that only a year before his death when asked if he regretted having written them he replied that far from that, if he had to write them again, he would only make them more violent.

Apart altogether from their import in theological controversy the "Provincials" hold a unique position in the history of the French language. In them for the first time it revealed itself as the most exquisite vehicle among modern tongues for the conveyance of clear and precise ideas, and the great French prose writers are thenceforth recognised as the supreme masters of logical expression in that simplicity of style which is the secret sign of elaborate unremitting toil in polishing and revision.

As to Pascal's greater work, the "thoughts" are only notes roughly jotted down and not even left in order. It is most difficult to deduce from them the system of reasoning by which he hoped not only to overthrow the adversaries of all religion but also to lead them to a better mind. M. Boutroux in a chapter which displays the greatest application to his subject as well as much ingenuity has succeeded in demonstrating what in all probability was the method which Pascal intended to pursue. Montaigne held that our reason went so hopelessly wrong when once it left dealing with things of sense and concerned itself with religion and philosophy that natural instinct was a better guide. Pascal held that man's nature was hopelessly corrupt and it was only by a radical change through Divine agency that he could walk straight. This view induced undoubtedly the utterance of many of his most sublime and gloomy reflections on man and his destiny and has led to his being classed among the profound sceptics who have appalled mankind. Pascal held that there was no natural proof of God and condemns alike the reason of humanity and the comfortable assurances of natural religion. Such phrases as "the eternal silence of those infinite spaces terrifies me" taken apart give a false impression of his attitude towards man and the Universe. He only destroys in order to build up on what he believed a surer foundation. He was a sceptic in order to be convinced the more thoroughly. Those who wish to grasp Pascal's system in its entirety cannot do better than study M. Boutroux's chapter above referred to; they will find in his exposition the refutation of much clever but one-sided criticism.

Both the manner of Pascal's death and the tone of his letters to his friends written during his later years refute the idea that he was a gloomy sceptic. If he were gloomy he might have been forgiven, for he was the victim all through his life of almost unceasing physical suffering, which he aggravated by intense

mental application, but those communications display a sublime faith no less than serene human wisdom. Interpret his religious philosophy as we may, his life will always remain one of the triumphs of the Christian Faith.

THE ILLUSTRATED CATALOGUE OF THE NATIONAL GALLERY.

"The National Gallery." Vol. III. Edited by Sir E. J. Poynter. London: Cassell. 1900. £7 7s.

THIS volume completes the pictorial catalogue of the National Gallery described on the appearance of the first two. It includes all English and modern foreign pictures in the collections of Trafalgar Square and the Tate Gallery. The reproductions have the same bright exactitude as before, and the descriptions are as ingeniously joined to face them. The editor remarks, with a hint of apology not unnatural in the circumstances, that few of the pictures have been purchased by the Trustees. Most have come by gift or bequest, or by purchase under the terms of the Chantrey Fund by the Council of the Academy. The collection seems to be limited to the pictures actually housed in the two galleries. Certain Turners that are now shown in provincial galleries are not included, for example a *Hero and Leander* that we can remember at Trafalgar Square. The same is true of Mulready and some other artists. On the other hand a number of Turners not shown in the galleries are reproduced e.g. the *Evening of the Deluge*, *Morning after the Deluge*, *The Exile*, and the *Rock Limpet*, pictures that give an offering to ribaldry, but deserve an occasional airing—they hang in the Keeper's rooms. So far as the text is concerned, the descriptive matter might have been cut down with advantage and brief biographies of the artists substituted. Minute descriptions of pictures (unless there be some real obscurity) belong to catalogues that are not illustrated.

We suppose that as time goes on some drastic process of weeding or retirement will be applied to this swollen collection. The Trustees have not bought but only accepted a great deal of rubbish for which the taste of Sir Henry Tate, of the Chantrey Trustees, and of various pious donors was in the first place responsible. We are afraid, however, it is by no means certain that the present Trustees would make a better selection. Some of their recent purchases for the National Gallery (see in particular the picture recently hung under the name of Fra Bartolommeo) are very much on the Tate or Chantrey level. Still worse than bad purchases is the loss of valuable pictures to the collection through the dilatory and hesitating action of a committee, when promptitude and conviction are called for. The director under this system is not really responsible, and we should like to see the system abolished and a director appointed with power to act upon his convictions. Every director would make some mistakes, but he would not be trammelled, when he was sure of his ground, by having to persuade a number of doubtful colleagues. The right policy is to get the best man and give him power.

WHAT IS CHRISTIANITY?

"What is Christianity?" By Adolf Harnack. Translated by T. B. Saunders. London: Williams and Norgate. 1901. 10s.

IN a course of sixteen lectures, given last autumn to students of the University of Berlin and now translated, Dr. Harnack offers us his notion of what Christianity is in its innermost essence, when stripped of all accretions, and with his definition that it is "eternal life in the midst of time by the strength and under the eyes of God" no Christian will be disposed to quarrel, until he discovers that from any share in the actual procuring of eternal life for mankind, other than the merely prophetic share of proclaiming that God was ready to grant it, the founder of Christianity is Himself excluded. Dr. Harnack of course rates the prophetic insight of Jesus into the mind of the Father extremely high; he goes so far as

to call it unique; and speaks of it in terms for which Christians may thank him; he acknowledges, further, that the title of Son of God was one that Jesus applied to Himself to express the intimacy of His relation with the Father; but he rejects altogether the doctrine of the Eternal Sonship, and consequently the doctrine of the Incarnation. It would be difficult to put the Christian claim more strongly than it is put in such passages as the following: and we have hope that the readers of these lectures may see how inadequate Dr. Harnack's theories are to interpret even the facts that he acknowledges.

"Again and again in the history of mankind men of God have come forward in the sure consciousness of possessing a divine message, and of being compelled, whether they will or not to deliver it. But the message has always happened to be imperfect; in this spot or that defective; bound up with political or particularistic elements; designed to meet the circumstances of the moment; and very often the prophet did not stand the test of being himself an example of his message. But in this case the message brought was of the profoundest and most comprehensive character. Defective it is not; antiquated it is not; and in life and strength it still triumphs to-day over all the past. He who delivered it has as yet yielded his place to no man, and to human life he still to-day gives a meaning and an aim—he the Son of God. No one who accepts the Gospel, and tries to understand Him who gave it us, can fail to affirm that here the divine appeared in as pure a form as it can appear on earth, and to feel that for those who followed Him Jesus was himself the strength of the Gospel."

When Christianity first emerges into the light of profane history, its essential characteristic, as we learn from the investigations of the Roman governor of Bithynia, made not without torture, was that on a stated day a hymn was sung before dawn to Christ as a God. So early, according to our Professor, had Christianity lost its original purity. But already in the Gospels we have evidences of worship. And in a striking passage Dr. Harnack, when treating of another subject, himself recognises these as genuinely historical.

"Where can we find in the history of mankind any similar instance of men eating and drinking with their master, seeing him in the characteristic aspects of his humanity, and then proclaiming him not only as the great prophet and revealer of God, but as the divine disposer of history, as the beginning of God's creation, and as the inner strength of a new life."

For occasional passages of this sort we are grateful; but as a rule, Dr. Harnack is very like other neologian critics in the skill with which he chooses from the New Testament authorities only such sayings and incidents as make for his own theories, and ignores everything that makes against them. He is for example for ever repeating that Jesus made no personal claim, caring only to direct men's attention past Himself to the Father. Leaving out of account all such sayings as that in S. John, "No one cometh unto the Father but by me", because Dr. Harnack rejects that gospel, we have in each of the synoptics a solemn questioning of the disciples by their Master as to their opinion of Himself, and when S. Peter makes confession of His divine nature, he is very emphatically blessed. Moreover the narrative makes plain that whereas before this confession Jesus had withdrawn before His enemies, after it He retreated no longer; but went south to Jerusalem to meet the end, as though something had taken place which made His continued presence upon earth unnecessary. To take another instance of Dr. Harnack's indifference to his texts when they conflict with his theories, Dr. Harnack speaks of "the palpable fact that in Greek dogma we have a fatal connexion established between the desire of the ancients for immortal life and the Christian message". But this fatal connexion is certainly as old as S. Paul who is said to have preached at Athens "Jesus and the Resurrection". It was precisely to the desire for immortal life that S. Paul addressed himself, as he did on another famous occasion before the Jewish Council. As to the Resurrection itself Dr. Harnack occupies a curious position. He considers that the evidence is worthless. At the same time he asserts that "the certainty of the Resur-

rection and of life eternal is bound up with the grave in Joseph's garden" and that "on the conviction that *Jesus lives* we still base these hopes of citizenship in an Eternal City which make an earthly life worth living and tolerable". The belief in Christ's appearances after death he treats as "a co-efficient"; helpful to establish the doctrine but henceforward useless; a husk that had done its work when the kernel was ripe. We do not think many people of intelligence will be found to agree with this new theory of the merely temporary use of evidence; an alleged occurrence for which the evidence is worthless does not become credible because it has been believed. In fact these lectures, while they have very much increased our respect for Dr. Harnack as a religious teacher, have seriously impaired our respect for him as a theologian.

GREEK MYTHOLOGY.

"Myths of Greece." By George St. Clair. London: Williams and Norgate. 1901. 16s.

THE mythology of Greece has, almost from the first, proved a fascinating theme for speculation. From the times of Xenophanes, Pythagoras and Plato to those of Max Müller and Mr. Andrew Lang thinkers innumerable have toiled to bring to light its secret. Whence came the gods of Greece? How did their legends grow up? To what extent are they symbolic? These, and a host of kindred questions, have been raised by every fresh inquirer; but up to the present time it has been found impossible to give them a decisive answer. Of course, many explanations have been attempted. We have, for instance, the ancient euhemeristic hypothesis, which would find in mythology only the exaggerated history of dead heroes of the past. We have, again, the naturalistic theory, ultimately reducing legend to poetic description of natural fact: or the allegorising explanation, which treats myth as an hieroglyphic, concealing beneath a fantastic appearance a profound meaning. Or, once more, there is the linguistic hypothesis, now chiefly associated with the name of the late Professor Max Müller, which summarily disposes of the story of the immortals, as "an affection or disorder of language". While last, though not least, we must take into account the speculations of the anthropologists, who trace in mythology simply the gradual elaboration of the folk-lore and primitive beliefs of uncivilised peoples.

Of these hypotheses the last is the one most favoured by modern critics. And, on the whole, it presents fewer difficulties and is more generally intelligible than any of the others. No single theory or explanation, however, will suffice to elucidate the mythology of the Greeks. Their legends are without uniformity, and cannot therefore be reduced to a system. Some of the stories are undoubtedly of the highest antiquity—relics of ancient folk-lore, handed down from generation to generation. Others are later attempts to account for names, customs and ritual peculiarities, the original significance of which was forgotten. Others, again, are the work of harmonisers, or poets: or are imported fragments of the mythology of other nations. While a few, doubtless, are dramatic representations of actual historical occurrences; and a few more are susceptible of a naturalistic or linguistic explanation. Thus we get a chaotic mass of legends, originating at different times, in different localities, and possessed of widely different values. Each of them must be separately criticised and classified, if any scientific account is to be forthcoming. For no one key has hitherto been discovered which will unlock the treasures of all.

The view here expressed is not that of Mr. George St. Clair. This writer belongs to the allegorical school—a school which dates back to the days of Theagenes of Rhegium, Diogenes of Apollonia and Metrodorus, and which aims at interpreting Greek myths in terms of philosophy or science. The method, which was also in great favour among Christian exegetes of the Middle Ages, has now fallen into discredit. But there still remain a few writers, who in their explanations both of scripture and of pagan myths, adhere to the ancient

system, and by arbitrary subjective interpretations claim to solve triumphantly the difficulties of the subject. The latest of these writers is Mr. St. Clair. The main contention of the "Myths of Greece" is thus briefly expressed by the author. "The secret of Greece is an allegory of astronomy and the calendar. The facts and phenomena of the heavens were the basis of the religious system. The priests were astronomers, the astronomers were priests. The mythology is their record—a religious history embalmed." Elsewhere it is repeated that the basis of Greek mythology was "the observation of the seasons, the study of the heavenly bodies, and the attempt to frame a correct calendar".

In working out his theory Mr. St. Clair gives proof of considerable ingenuity, but he is betrayed into extravagances which are frequently grotesque. That Kronos signifies the lunar, and Zeus the solar year: that Athene "represents just that fragment of time required by the year of Zeus to make it agree with the sun": that Apollo stands for "a great calendar reform which was effected about 2418 B.C." and so "came to represent the perfected year", may be evident to the intelligence of this very astronomical mythologist: but it is difficult to draw any clear distinction between such far-fetched explanations and Metrodorus' absurd identifications of Agamemnon with ether or of Hector with the moon. Any man, of course, is at liberty to read his own meaning into a myth. But it is another thing when he asserts that this was what the myth originally meant. Nor can we congratulate Mr. St. Clair on the incidental application of his method to Biblical criticism. It may surprise the old-fashioned to learn that the Deluge was nothing worse than "the sudden uprise of the celestial abyss on the vernal side of the world, when the equinox is put into its new and current position after long neglect": or that the fall of the angels was only "the drop down of the antiquated equinoxes and their stars". The explanation of the Creation and the Tower of Babel is similarly unconventional. But there is no need to enlarge on these fantastic notions.

The "Myths of Greece" is interesting as an allegorical curiosity, but, as a contribution to the scientific study of Greek mythology, it cannot be taken seriously. The author has allowed his astronomical bias to get the better of his judgment, and his work is thereby spoilt. But let him be judged out of his own mouth. "My book" writes Mr. St. Clair "is nothing if not original: and my labour has been wasted if I am not a good deal nearer to the truth than some who are counted as adepts". (The allusion appears to be to Mr. Lang and Dr. Teile). If this be the criterion, it is to be feared that Mr. St. Clair's labour has indeed been lost.

THE STUDY OF THE SEPTUAGINT.

"An Introduction to the Old Testament in Greek." By Henry Barclay Swete. With an Appendix containing the Letter of Aristeas edited by H. St. J. Thackeray. Cambridge: At the University Press. 1900. 7s. 6d. net.

THE study of the Septuagint in England during the last twenty years has been much stimulated by the publication of various works intended for the guidance of the student. Hatch's "Essays in Biblical Greek" led the way in directing attention to the language of the Septuagint, especially in its relation to that of the Greek New Testament. Long before this Dr. Hatch had been anxious that Oxford should have the distinction of publishing a better text of the Greek Old Testament than that which had been already published by the University Press. But the idea fell through and it was reserved for the sister University to undertake the work. Its first fruits were seen in the portable edition in three volumes (under the editorship of Dr. Swete, Regius Professor of Divinity) which is soon to reach a third edition; and we are promised a much more ambitious edition in the future somewhat on the lines of the old Holmes and Parsons edition, a book which can never entirely be superseded. Oxford, at the same time, made a second contribution to the works for the assistance of the student in the Concordance to the Septuagint, which is

being followed by a supplemental volume to bring the work in some respects up to date. With these and Field's monumental edition of the Hexapla of an earlier date a solid foundation has been laid for further research.

The volume now before us edited by the leading scholar on the subject in England, and dedicated by him to the veteran Septuagint scholar Dr. Nestle, indicates the various lines on which future study and research can set forth. It is a marvel of accuracy and methodical arrangement and speaks well not only for its author but for the University Press at Cambridge. In a supplement we have a critical text of Aristeas' famous letter edited by Mr. St. John Thackeray, already known by his translation of Blass's "Grammar of the New Testament".

If we were asked what were the main objects to be aimed at in a deeper and more extended study of the Septuagint, we should say that there were two of paramount importance. The first of these would be the recovery of the true text and meaning of many passages in the Hebrew Bible. This can only be arrived at very tentatively, and with great caution. There must be no re-writing of the Hebrew Bible to make it square with modern ideas and prepossessions. This on the one hand; on the other hand it must be remembered that the Greek version, or the greater part of it, carries us back at least a thousand years behind the earliest dated MSS. of the Hebrew, and also behind the establishment of a standard Hebrew text which led to the suppression of all other editions and recensions. The second is a still more extensive use of the LXX in the study of the New Testament. Dr. Knowling in his edition of the Acts lately published in the Expositor's Greek Testament furnishes us with an excellent example of what is possible in this direction. Dr. Swete gives us the lead in both these matters in the fourth chapter of the third part of his work. Still more, however, is daily becoming possible in the study of the language of the LXX. The excavations of Greek papyri in Egypt are showing us that many words which till now have been considered peculiar to the LXX were really part of the current Alexandrian Greek (Swete, p. 293). Colloquial Greek of various periods, as distinguished from literary Greek, will have to be more carefully studied. We may refer, in this connexion, to Deissmann's "Bible Studies".

A few incidental remarks occur to us with reference to this book. (1) A careful study of the LXX has brought us to the conclusion that in some cases the Greek translation was dictated. The Hebrew was read aloud word by word; perhaps a word was heard wrongly by the translator and he gave the Greek for what he imagined had been read; a scribe then took down the translation given by word of mouth, and he also was liable to make mistakes in a similar way. (2) Much remains to be ascertained as to the Greek text of the Scriptures used in the Service books of the Eastern churches: we could wish that we had been told more about them in this volume. (3) Dr. Swete does not seem to have mentioned what a considerable number of Epic words and forms are to be found in the vocabulary of the LXX. (4) The form of comparison used in the LXX (see p. 306) should, we venture to think, be rather classed among the constructions due to the Hebrew. (5) We do not notice any statement to the effect that, in the Hebrew, words were occasionally abbreviated and that the translator may have mistaken one abbreviation for another. (6) It should have been mentioned that the Greek words about "the Lord reigning from the tree" are to be found in the first hand of the uncial transliteration from the Greek of the Verona Psalter (R). (7) We conclude that the Concordance to the Proper Names of the LXX was published by the Clarendon Press since Dr. Swete's book went to press; otherwise it should have found a place in one of his paragraphs relating to the literature of the subject.

NOVELS.

"Queen's Mate." By Morice Gerard. London: Hodder and Stoughton. 1901. 6s.

This volume deals with the plottings and love-makings of crowned and other heads in that modified Europe for

which the creator of Hentzau, Ruritania and the rest stands literary godfather. It contains a rather irritating mixture of Gramandian emperors and British dukes and ambassadors and Skilovian princes and queens of Amphalia; and the reader has a strong impression that more interesting results were once on a time obtained by the same author from less aristocratic materials. Fictitious emperors and beautiful though bogus young queens turn in fact, unless they are presented with great skill in detached realisation, to dust and ashes in the mouth; and in the present story narrative unity in the imaginary is destroyed by incongruous hints from the real. The competition on political, financial or purely personal grounds for the hand of the queen of that important little Dutch-speaking kingdom Amphalia is the subject of the plot; and the treatment may be described as vivacious in parts. A dullish dog however is Ferdinand Emperor of Gramand.

"A Woman Alone." Three Stories. By Mrs. W. K. Clifford. London: Methuen. 1901. 3s. 6d.

Mrs. Clifford is not, in these stories, exhilarating, but there is little else to be said in disparagement, and many people enjoy wanton melancholy. Two of the three stories touch the same people: "Marie Zellinger" is a slight but interesting narrative of the life of one of the minor characters in "A Woman Alone". The heroine of this, a brilliant Hungarian, who wrecks two lives because she tries to impart some of her own fire to an able but horribly phlegmatic English husband, is a very successful creation. The man is perhaps unnaturally selfish, but then the reader is compelled to see him with his wife's eyes. The excellence of the work lies to a great extent in the sure touch with which Mrs. Clifford handles her London, and it would be desirable for most of our writers of fiction to try to learn from her. The last story in the book is curiously depressing and very real.

"Love and Honour." By M. E. Carr. London: Smith, Elder. 1901. 6s.

"Love and Honour" is a very conventional story of people who behaved unconventionally. A German nobleman believes his fiancée to have perished in the French Revolution, but finds her, years later, alive and the wife of a French general. Werther, in this case, was not a very moral man, the general bored the lady, and the rest may be imagined. The dénouement which we will not reveal to anxious readers comes in the retreat from Moscow. As Mrs. Carr has set her story in such stirring times, she might have studied them more carefully. Her knowledge of the Westphalian nobles who supply most of the characters may be seen from the fact that the hero's mother is called "the Freifrau", and it is odd to have "Partant pour la Syrie" described as the song of the First Empire.

"Prince Charming: a Fantastic Episode in Court Dress." By "Rita." London: Sands. 3s. 6d.

"Rita" has tried desperately hard to write a story of the kind in which Mr. Harland succeeds. A blasé heir-apparent, a charming and virtuous peasant-girl, a moral reformation. . . . It needs a very light and graceful touch, and this it lacks. To tell the truth, "Prince Charming" is a bore, the social satire is crude, and the sentimentality of the love idyll is cloying. A half-witted old man, living in one of the Achill or Aran islands, fancying himself King of Ireland, is to a great extent a redeeming feature. But the book is trivial without gaiety, and "Rita" must know perfectly well that the dialect she puts into the mouth of the minor characters is stage-Irish of the worst kind. In so far as the story approaches the life of living personages, it is in very poor taste.

"Tales that are Told." By Mary Findlater and Jane Helen Findlater. London: Methuen. 1901. 6s.

One of the worst results of the existence of popular magazines is that writers who can do good work are led to publish short stories which they would hardly sit down in cold blood to write. These tales will not add to the reputation of either of the writers. They are quite harmless, and are above the level of magazine fiction, but in them the qualities which have won for each of the Misses Findlater an assured position in the wake

of Mrs. Oliphant are very much disguised. The temptation of the short story to a writer of long quiet stories dealing with character rather than incident lies in the risk of melodrama.

NEW BOOKS AND REPRINTS.

"Our Flags." By Rear-Admiral S. Eardley Wilmot. London: Simpkin, Marshall. 1901.

This short treatise is heartily welcomed for the reasons stated in its introduction, but in his desire to be understood of the people, the author has ignored heraldry and so been occasionally led to make inaccurate statements. The Conqueror's banner at Hastings may be relegated to tradition and it must be remembered that "leo" was used indifferently for lion or leopard. On page 18 "a harp and crown" are asserted to be the "arms of the Irish kings", but Irish heraldry cannot claim so early an existence and the nearest approach to the present arms of Ireland are those of Leinster, *vert a harp or stringed argent*. It is also incorrect to say that Ireland was added "by right of conquest". Space forbids an heraldic explanation of the arms carried by James I. but it is not what the author assumes. He is again inaccurate in saying the death of Charles dissolved the union between the two "countries". Speaking of banners, Admiral Eardley Wilmot not only greatly antedates the use of coat armour but overlooks the fact that the lowest degree entitled to a banner was that of banneret. Popular usage can never sanction the mistake made in calling the Royal banner a standard, the latter is an essentially different flag, and as the word "device" has a particular heraldic significance, it should have been avoided. Apart from faults of this nature, the little book contains much that is interesting and useful. The plates are good and generally assist the text, but are the leaves shown in the Commonwealth flag those of the "palm and shamrock"?

"Some Literary Landmarks for Pilgrims on Wheels." By F. W. Brockett. London: Dent. 1901.

A few of the papers in this little volume have been reprinted from "Macmillan's Magazine", but for the most part the matter is fresh. Mr. Brockett would claim for cycling that it is a gentler art than angling. He admits that there is such a thing as a "scorcher", but predicts that before long he will "be as extinct as the old bone-shaker". We see no sign of it. The most beautiful parts of Surrey have become quite demoralised by the hordes of wretches, geared up to eighty or a hundred, who make it hideous on Saturday afternoons and throughout every summer Sabbath; and north of London it is almost as bad. It is a pity Lord Rosebery has not driven home the excellent remarks he made some time ago on the evil side of this recreation. Mr. Brockett is much happier when dealing with Jane Austen and Charles Lamb and Shelley and their wanderings and haunts than when he turns to those whom he calls "Some Moderns". In such a sentence as this written of Tennyson, he does not do himself justice: "The lines recalled those fateful days when the world seemed to pause with bated breath while the old poet's life trembled in the balance". And what in the world induced him to try to describe the scenes which Dr. Conan Doyle sees down Nutcombe Bottom when he opens his windows to take a breath of "intoxicating Surrey air"? It is a matter of supremest indifference what he sees. These were mistakes, yet Mr. Brockett's book is agreeable and has many dainty little pictures by Mr. J. A. Symington.

"William Pitt, Earl of Chatham." By W. D. Green, M.P. New York and London: Putnam's. 1901. 5s.

Mr. Green gives us in this volume a piece of work which is perfectly conscientious, that is to say he has taken the trouble to inform himself as to the period of which he writes at some of the original sources accessible to inquirers. But we cannot admit that he has given us the indispensable Life of Lord Chatham for which Englishmen must still wait. We cannot but speculate how from different points of view Mr. John Morley and Lord Rosebery would have treated so inspiring a theme. We cannot find that Mr. Green has evolved any original criticism or been betrayed into a single epigram worth remembering on one of the most striking careers in English history. The author appears at his best in handling the personal intrigues which followed the fall of Walpole and the accession of Pitt to power; here he shows considerable patience and industry in unravelling a tangled web. When he comes to draw the picture of Pitt's triumphs in the Seven Years' War, his struggle against American Taxation and his final effort to save the Empire he lacks both vigour and adequate style. Still he has produced a book which gives a reasonable sketch of a very great man. It is superior to many volumes in this series but it lacks the note of distinction which a monograph on such a subject should possess.

"Through Persia on a Side Saddle." By Ella C. Sykes. London: Macquenn. 1901.

A new and revised edition with, as a new feature, an introduction by Sir Frederic Goldsmid. The author was the first European woman to visit Kerman and Persian Baluchistan,

and her book has no pretensions to be historic, scientific or political, but is just the record of a very happy period in her life which she seems to re-live in the telling of it. Sir Frederic considers that "Our relations with Afghanistan are reasonably amicable; those with the neighbouring Kelat State have undergone more than one process of happy modification; and it is satisfactory to certify that these changes of condition mean upon the whole real progress, and that, thanks to His Majesty's Indian Government, and the Royal Geographical Society, the outcome of that progress, whether theoretical or practical, is being turned to account by political and scientific experts who are themselves competent chroniclers".

"Manual of the Birds of Iceland." By H. M. Slater. Edinburgh: Douglas. 1901. 5s. net.

This admirable little handbook on the birds of an island which is now annually visited by a good number of English people is the result of fifteen years' careful observation and study. It is very bad news that even in Iceland several species of birds are threatened with extinction in spite of the close seasons which have been instituted. "The Great Auk is gone for ever—I do not think that mere collectors had very much to do with that—but there are two or three other species, the extinction of which as breeding birds in Iceland does not seem very far off. Amongst these are the Grey Phalarope, the Black-tailed Godwit, and the Little Auk; and the Iceland Falcon also is diminishing in numbers. In these and other cases, this is owing to the wholesale taking of their eggs, which the Close Season law in Iceland does not regulate in any way."

"Buckinghamshire." By G. E. Mitton. London: Black. 1901. 2s. 6d.

The county of Milton, of Gray, of Penn, of Cowper and of Hampden, to mention only some of the great names associated with the Chilterns and their district, cannot fail to appeal to those who care in the least for English literature and history, and Miss Mitton has evidently enjoyed her work. We think she might have spared a little more space than she has done for the delightful country and villages and hamlets about Jordans, and she might have dwelt a little on the noble views to be obtained from almost any of the hill summits about Whiteleaf Cross. On a clear day one sees the White Horse Hills most distinctly from any of these points. The sectional maps are well done, but there is not a good general map of the county.

"The Letters of her Mother to Elizabeth." London: Unwin. 1901.

Few books more thoroughly deserve to stimulate parody than "The Visits of Elizabeth", but this attempt though not without humour makes the common mistake of keeping too close to the style of the original. The result is that the parody reads like a mere copy with occasional intervals of burlesque. The amount of utterly needless vulgarity in "The Visits of Elizabeth" would have made an excellent target for satirical parody and such a protest was much needed. It is a pity that the chance was missed.

"Flowers and Ferns in their Haunts." By Mabel Osgood Wright. New York: The Macmillan Company. 1901. 10s. 6d. net.

The illustrations are evidently intended to be a special feature of this book on American flowers and ferns. But they do not impress one: there is far too much photography on the usual shiny disagreeable paper. The result is weight rather than quality. The author does not like too much talk about calyx, corolla, stamen and pistil, and we sympathise with her. She approaches flowers in the right spirit, but will not find many to share her objections to flowers cut and put in a bowl to adorn our rooms.

"The Works of Lord Byron." Vol. IV. Edited by Ernest Hartley Coleridge. London: Murray. 1901. 6s.

As a frontispiece we have in this volume a portrait of Byron from an engraving after the very characteristic drawing by G. H. Harlow. Mr. Coleridge has one or two interesting notes on Byron as student and omnivorous reader. That he "read widely and studied diligently" is a fact which has not been generally appreciated.

"The Cathedral Church of Ely." By the Rev. W. D. Sweeting. "The Abbey Churches of Bath and Malmesbury." By the Rev. T. Perkins. "The Cathedral Church of Bristol." By H. J. L. J. Massé. London: Bell. 1901. 1s. 6d. each net.

Three new volumes in Bell's excellent "Cathedral Series". These books are not distinguished by any delicacy of style such as marks Dean Kitchin's delightful little work on Winchester; but they are useful and sound.

"The Little Flowers of Saint Benet." London: Kegan Paul. 1901. 5s. net.

Some account of the life and talk of S. Benedict 480-543 A.D. derived from one of the books containing the Dialogues of S. Gregory the Great, Pope of Rome. This is practically a reprint of part of the translation into English of S. Gregory's work made in 1608 by the unidentified "P.W."

"Gardening for Beginners." By E. T. Cook. London : Newnes. 1901. 10s. 6d. net.

This is a bulky volume illustrated by photographs on the slippery paper to which we do not take at all kindly. In quantity at any rate the volume does undoubtedly excel. Mr. Robinson's fine work "The English Flower Garden" was the first work of this kind.

"The Broad Line : a Story of a Paper." By A. B. Paine. London : Kegan Paul. 1901. 5s.

This is addressed "To those who have started papers, to those who have thought of starting papers, and to those who are thinking of starting papers". It does not give anything in the shape of practical advice or experience, and is evidently meant to be playful.

"Sartor Resartus" and "On Heroes, Hero-worship and the Heroic in History." By Thomas Carlyle. The Library of English Classics. London : Macmillan. 3s. 6d. net.

Includes a bibliographical note, and the Testimonies of Authors which Carlyle omitted from the 1858 collected edition of his works.

THE AUGUST REVIEWS.

The political outlook is the dominant topic in the August Reviews. "Blackwood's" sums up the situation as "a languid session and a Liberal farce", and distributes its criticisms impartially between the Government which lacks vigour and the Opposition which wants unity. In the "Nineteenth Century" Sir Wemyss Reid disposes of "the Liberal imbroglio" with the "vision" of a party throwing off parasitic extremists and showing itself true to the old creed. How this vision is to be realised without further dislocation of Liberal forces, no one who understands the elements of which the Opposition is composed is likely to attempt to predict. We can hardly anticipate that the Radicals will follow Mr. Frederick Greenwood's advice, as given in the "New Liberal Review", and sink individual differences for the sake of party and principles as a whole. Mr. Greenwood, with Mr. J. A. Spender in the "Contemporary", does not regard the differences of the party as irreconcilable, but Mr. E. T. Cook in the "New Liberal Review" shows a more practical appreciation of facts when he says that the existence of two schools of thought on Imperial questions within the Liberal party is fatal to its efficiency. The Liberal party was originally prepared to assist the break-up of the Empire: the Empire has broken up the Liberal party. "An Old Parliamentary Hand" in the "National" thinks that now is "Lord Rosebery's opportunity". The country, we are told, is looking for a man to reform the War Office and the army, to maintain an efficient navy and to go ahead with the solution of domestic problems. "An Old Parliamentary Hand" is a very sanguine person, and apparently would not be unwilling to endorse the eulogy passed on Lord Rosebery as Foreign Minister by the "Contemporary". In a second article this month the "Contemporary" reviews the crises which Lord Rosebery handled so that no war resulted during the years 1892-95. So far as we can see Lord Rosebery succeeded only in defeating Khedivial ambition, and in other directions avoided war by doing nothing. His Siamese policy is considered by the "Contemporary" to have been a great success, because he took steps to defend British interests while Siam was being partitioned by France. Lord Rosebery is credited with leaving Lord Salisbury a strong hand in the Far East in the friendliness of Japan. Japanese gratitude is a wonderful virtue, if it extends to the country which stood aside while the fruits of victory were snatched by others. If there is any friendliness for Great Britain in Japan, it certainly is not due to the statesmanship of Lord Rosebery.

"An Old Parliamentary Hand" naively suggests a Rosebery Government with Lord Cromer at the Foreign Office, Lord Kitchener at the War Office, and Lord Charles Beresford at the Admiralty. He is clearly of the same opinion as the writer of an anonymous article in the "Fortnightly" entitled "A Cry for Men". Are the leaders in the political world in general, and of the Tory political world in particular, incapable of governing the Empire? The notion is not so absurd as the proposal that Lord Rosebery must be called in as saviour. According to the "Fortnightly" article, Mr. Chamberlain is the one man living capable of inspiring the executive energies of a whole Government and of providing England with a powerful administration. "And the worst of our fate is that Mr. Chamberlain is our best." The possibility of an alternative Government to the present has been prejudiced, we are assured, by Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman's ambition to become Prime Minister—"a revelation . . . of which the country has not yet quite grasped the significance". But though Sir Henry is out of the question, we are, in the "Fortnightly" Reviewer's opinion, in danger of escaping the revolutionary fate of France only to suffer the fate of Spain. The "Fortnightly" article is a remarkable one. Its incisive paradoxes are refreshing in the dog days, but we are afraid a rosary of

epigrams is not necessarily a panacea for all political ills. The Liberal party as Mr. Edward Dicey says—also in the "Fortnightly"—is in extremis; and that it should be so is not strange if he is correct in his view that the party was played out even before the decease of Mr. Gladstone. The "Monthly Review" pleads that the moment has come for the declaration of a new and positive Liberal policy, but as such a declaration can only be made if the section of the party which opposes the war will consent to stultify itself, there is not much chance of any note being sounded that is not discordant.

"The Mediterranean Scare" engages the attention of Mr. Archibald Hurd and Mr. E. Robertson in the "Nineteenth Century", and Mr. Arnold White returns to the subject in the "National". The two former seek to minimise the alarmist tone adopted by writers like Mr. Arnold White, who says that the interests of the navy are subordinated to party politics. Otherwise, "Why is any layman or company of ignorant non-experts like the Navy League required to awaken the nation to the needs of the Navy?" If the Mediterranean wants ships, Mr. Arnold White apparently wants manners. In the "Fortnightly" there are no less than three naval articles, one by Mr. H. W. Wilson inviting reasons for any optimism which may exist as to the certainty that the British fleet would issue victorious from war; a second by "Excubitor" who is not one of the pessimists but indicates directions in which he considers the navy is deficient and others in which he thinks the country may be satisfied with what the Admiralty have done; and a third by Mr. F. T. Jane on the apotheosis of the torpedo. Mr. Jane thinks he detects signs of the possible extinction of the big battleship, unless some means can be found of coping with the destroyer. In the "Monthly" is a most interesting article descriptive of "the tactics of the submarine", by Mr. A. Hilliard Atteridge who tells the dramatic story of the sinking of the "Housatonic" in the blockade of Charleston on 19 February, 1864. Army reform, which is dealt with in three articles in the "Empire Review", is discussed in the "Monthly" by Lieut.-Col. Maude, who points out some of Mr. Brodrick's lost opportunities. Lieut.-Col. Maude among other things proposes that arrangements should be made with Canada for the quartering of a number of men during a period of service at selected spots in the Dominion. In the "Nineteenth Century", Mr. Sidney Low warns us of a danger which he thinks lurks in the War Office report. The reorganisation of the head-quarters bureaucracy, he says, will not give us all we want, and there are many things to be secured which are not comprised under the head of administrative machinery. The army needs reform in Mr. Low's view at least as much as the War Office.

Mr. Sydney Brooks takes a somewhat original view of the American character in a "Fortnightly" article on "American Imperialism". He says much about the sentiment and morality of the people of the United States, but he can discover no ground for believing that they will give up the spoils system in the administration of their colonies. "The real strength of the opposition to expansion over seas came from American morality and American conservatism", says Mr. Brooks. For all "the real strength" accomplished it is clearly a negligible quantity. In the "Nineteenth Century" Mr. Samuel E. Moffett seeks to explain how America really feels towards England. Mr. Moffett entertains considerable contempt for other writers on Anglo-American relations, and thinks a better understanding may result from a statement of plain truths. Mr. Moffett is a grim humourist. Americans, he informs us in almost so many words, will be only too glad to be friends with England if England will kindly consent to do everything they want and take American views on all things American. For instance England must take America's view as to the future of the Western Hemisphere, and not only recognise the Monroe doctrine, which by the way she was the first to do whatever Mr. Moffett may suppose, but accept the fact that the position of Canada is an anomaly. Mr. Moffett, who thinks we were wrong to interfere with the Boers, is an advocate of the domination of Canada by the United States. He gravely assures us that the Americans would more willingly give up all China (which they do not possess) than a single inch of Alaska!

Of the more miscellaneous papers in the reviews several demand special mention. First there is Miss E. L. Banks' protest in the "Fortnightly" against the practice of publishing the love-letters of men like Bismarck, letters written for reading by one pair of eyes alone, and generally calculated in the cold light of print to make their writers appear as ridiculous as the principals in a breach of promise action. To the "National" Mr. Austin Dobson contributes an essay on S. James' Park as it was rather than as it is—"not the undulating and umbrageous landscape-garden of the Victorian era, with its elaborate boskage and symmetric flower knots, but the plainer and less pretentious pleasure ground which presented itself to the eyes of Queen Anne and the Georges". "Blackwood's" contains one of Linesman's inimitable and graphic sketches dealing with "a side show" of the war. Linesman's essays are all the more attractive because he never makes the mistake of depreciating or scoffing at the enemy. "Courage", he says, "is fair, grit and stoutness of purpose are fair, death pro patria is fair; have not the Boers shown them all, unmistakable amid the treachery, bigotry and

vice—the rubbish which alone has been visible to too many of our seers?" In the "Monthly Review" Earl Nelson writes an anecdotal essay on the House of Lords and Mr. Leslie Stephen a philosophic essay on Walking. Earl Nelson describes an incident connected with Lord Beaconsfield's last speech in the House of Lords, in which he lamented the abandonment of Kandahar by Mr. Gladstone. Earl Granville subsequently explained that he was obliged to let Lord Beaconsfield close the debate early, as he received a note from the Tory leader saying he must speak then or never, as "the sedative he had taken to lull his pain was losing its power". The Duchess of Sutherland in the "New Liberal" writes attractively on the processes of hand-spinning and hand-weaving, and makes an appeal on behalf of the industry of the crofters and cottars of the Highlands. Mr. H. T. Sheringham's article on "The Fly Fisher's Aftermath" in "Macmillan's" contains some hints which the inexpert angler may find of service.

The "Church Quarterly Review" did not reach us in time to be discussed in the same article with the other Quarterlies; but we should be sorry wholly to ignore an excellent number of that admirable Review. The articles on "An Irish Roman Catholic University" and "The Church, Democracy, and Socialism" are perhaps the most interesting. We do not however accept the reviewer's estimate of the Socialistic ideal, which seems to be borrowed entire from Max Hirsch with all his onesidedness.

FRENCH LITERATURE.

Une Ame Obscure. Par Jean de Ferrières. Paris: Ollendorff. 1901. 3f. 50c.

The illustrated cover dimly reveals an emaciated woman staring vacantly into space; and she is the utterly obscure woman whose unhappy life constitutes the theme of M. Jean de Ferrières' wonderful book. We have not heard of the author before, yet have no hesitation in describing this work as the most remarkable of the season, a work of extraordinary power, of infinite promise. M. de Ferrières has produced, in fact, a masterpiece: not a flaw is there in his terribly calm, restrained account of the career of Corinne Bourgiel who, neglected and disdained by her mother, grows up in the society of the servants and is married eventually to her mother's lover, who is neglected and disdained by him, who is neglected and disdained by everybody. Not a slip is there in the grim analysis of her emotions when, separated from her husband and left alone, she seeks thirstily the love other women enjoy—first from an adopted son who robs and deserts her, then from animals that shrink from her, finally from a retired officer who brutally insults her; terribly fine, again, is the description of her last days when, despairing and broken, she whiles away the long, lonely hours by writing and posting herself love-letters, by reading and re-reading them, and by handling the quantities of gems she has amassed—fascinated by their glitter—and which sparkle from all points of her room when she is found dead one morning with a "perruque frisée, à demi mangée et posée de travers" on her head, almost a skeleton, "comme un effroyable mannequin". Yet Corinne Bourgiel was not a bad woman; she would have had a less awful life if she had been. She was simply *nothing*; plain but not ugly, plain both in face and mind, wholly destitute of charm; and so much mediocrity, so much obscurity, are failings that Parisians pardon less easily than sin. Her brightest moment was when she drew on her First Communion robes . . . "elle sourit à son image qui lui parut jolie". But her mother having declared that she resembled "une araignée prise dans les fils de sa toile, elle se sentit prête à pleurer". And then the black moments began. Another painful occasion is when Corinne strives to imitate the gestures and mannerisms of worldly women, hoping thus to win her husband's admiration. But the attempt is ghastly: her husband laughs wildly, cries, "Ah! Ah! regardez donc Corinne, comme elle est drôle". And—"Corinne s'empourpra en petite fille fautive". All this tragedy is rendered the more intense, the more haunting by M. de Ferrières' grand style. He has evidently studied Flaubert, studied the sense of words with the same ardent devotion and the same remarkable result. However, as lack of space prevents us from quoting some of the finer passages of "Une Ame Obscure", we must rest content with recommending our readers to seek them out for themselves. The book, of course, is harrowing, depressing; but so is the best work of Maupassant and the de Goncourts, so is "Madame Bovary".

Œuvres Complètes de Paul Bourget. Romans: Tome II. *Mensonges; Physiologie de l'Amour Moderne.* Paris: Plon. 1901. 7f. 50c.

In the second half of this volume M. Paul Bourget strips of all enchantment the modern *liaison*. And we are grateful to him for this service: hail with infinite relief his merciless exposure of the sordid side of intrigue which so many writers choose to ignore, preferring, in order to preserve their reputation for "voluptuousness", to dwell exhaustively and often offensively upon the so-called joys of love illicit, love most unromantic. With M. Bourget, on this occasion, we follow the fortunes, or rather the misfortunes, of a cer-

tain Claude Larcher who has just been deserted by his mistress. He, a weak creature, laments his loneliness; and although Colette has treated him disgracefully, he declares himself ready, eager to take her back. When she refuses, he mopes, whimpers, droops; then writes his "Physiologie de l'Amour Moderne" in order to stifle as much as possible his ire and grief. Now, Colette was not by any means the first lady to enjoy his "protection". Many others had preceded her. Consequently, Larcher on the point of intrigue is an authority, a specialist. And as he appears before us blasé, exhausted, depressed, thoroughly wrecked and wretched, we may infer that *liaisons* are not as pleasant as the average author would make out; while, if further evidence of this be required, it can be immediately obtained by turning to Larcher's "Meditations" on Colette and her sisters, the drawbacks and disasters that emanate from knowing them, the invariable rupture at its first dawn and afterwards, the inevitable dilemmas, deceptions, and disputes. All this makes depressing reading, and Larcher's complaints occasionally become monotonous. But the point of view is new, and therefore interesting; it is rare to find a Parisian acknowledging his faults and follies, deploring them; rare again to have him inquiring into the immorality and corruption around him. Larcher does not spare himself, nor does he spare others; his "Meditations" are evidently intended as a warning, a lesson. "Mensonges", also, has its moral, its message; but M. Paul Bourget's masterpiece is too well known to need more than passing mention. A word of praise, however, is due to the Librairie Plon for the excellence of their complete edition of M. Bourget's works. Both the type and paper are admirable; and the volumes, unlike the usual yellow-backed books, are not in imminent danger of coming apart.

Questions Américaines. Par Th. Bentzon. Paris: Hachette. 1901. 3f. 50c.

"We believe", said the SATURDAY REVIEW last week in regard to Mr. Rudyard Kipling, "that there is a general idea, not by any means confined to this land, that he utters the voice of the Empire in matters of Imperial concern", and "stamped with the great hall-mark of the 'Times', Mr. Kipling's verses go forth as the voice of the Nation". This is precisely what M. Bentzon asserts most positively in his interesting chapter on the "English Army as painted by Rudyard Kipling" whose presence in the volume he excuses on the ground that Mr. Kipling is also an influence in, almost "the adopted son" of, America. And if we do not find M. Bentzon condemning the vulgarity of "The Lesson", we have him attacking earlier vulgarisms, agreeing in fact on all points with the SATURDAY REVIEW. Particularly severe over "The Barrack Room Ballads", M. Bentzon denounces those that represent the soldier as constantly indulging in orgies and oaths; but, here and there, as a contrast, he quotes passages from works written in the better days of Mr. Kipling. Perhaps, however, M. Bentzon overestimates the importance of the author of "The Lesson" whose "influence" we believe to be ephemeral: and the day, we imagine, is not far distant when he will have to suppress those passages in which he describes Mr. Kipling as the "prophet", "the oracle". Highly interesting, also, is M. Bentzon's chapter on the position of women in the United States, an always entertaining subject, by the way, in the hands of a Frenchman. Another paper of moment is that on gold fever in America; and an altogether welcome volume is further embellished by a gracefully written criticism of certain American books that deal with life a hundred years ago in Virginia and Louisiana.

La Tournée. Par Jean Ajalbert. Paris: Éditions de la Revue Blanche. 1901. 3f. 50c.

A lively account of the adventures of a band of strolling-players who, with a wonderful melodrama entitled "L'Usine", tour the provinces under the direction of Paul Vernal, as capably drawn a character as Bordenave, the director of the "Variétés" in Nana. Molière suffered in his youth when he "went on the road": and so does Isidore le Superbe—no less! a prodigious poet, author of a "tragédie-féerie, en vers libres, avec des musiques" which Vernal very wisely refuses to perform. No one admires Isidore the Superb except Fanny Desrozes, the star; but she, alas! can display no greater appreciation of his genius than by promising to play the title-rôle in one of his terrific tragedies in the dim, dim future. So—Isidore suffers. The comedians also suffer: the whole company suffers. In Brussels, scarcely a soul applauds the "Usine". Berlin frankly dislikes it; Alsace—out of patriotism perhaps—tolerates it, but Brittany deals it a death-blow. No doubt M. Ajalbert has himself undergone the adventures described in this book: his knowledge of his subject could not be more perfect. Isidore is most life-like; we should be glad to hear more of him, we are anxious to know if Fanny Desrozes has kept her promise.

Les Cartons Verts. Par Georges Lecomte. Paris: Charpentier-Fasquelle. 1901. 3f. 50c.

No obscurer, no more depressing person exists in Paris than the "petit fonctionnaire" attached to the "Administration", the headquarters of official insolence, also of red tape. And, in his latest book, M. Georges Lecomte mercilessly exposes the

mediocrity of this class whose eternal duty it is to copy letters and rule margins neatly, without ever making a blot. His scene is frequently laid in the bureau itself; and, should the sous-chef absent himself, the "petits fonctionnaires" brew coffee, exchange dull views on dull things: schoolboy-like rush to their stools when they hear the sous-chef return, glance constantly at the clock. In fact, they may be compared in point of charm and intellect to Charles Bovary and the weak, puny husband of Thérèse Raquin. Their only accomplishment is a clear handwriting: they can write equally well in all fashions—backwards, upwards, as finely as a woman—and this rare gift entitles them after years and years of service to a pension which enables them to spend their remaining days in dreary idleness. Any intercourse with these people in private life would be quite intolerable, but M. Lecomte, who sketches them with infinite subtlety and humour, succeeds in making them as amusing in their own way as the Bodfish, Titmarshes and Uncle Gabriels of Mr. Anstey.

Mon Amie. Par Jacques des Gachons. Paris: Juven. 1901. 3f. 50c.

It is a refreshing change to come across a simple book like "Mon Amie". The hero is a "bon jeune homme" of no importance who modestly announces, "Je suis né aux plaines et je ne puis comprendre ni la montagne ni l'emphase ni les grands orgueils". Now and then he smokes a cigarette, sips a bock; otherwise, his life is wholly uneventful. Not a single exciting page follows. Our hero studies, dreams, at last meets a charming young lady and falls in love with her. The young lady

(Continued on page 184.)

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herself is quiet; no one is gay. But the story is far from monotonous, and the "bon jeune homme" writes gracefully.

Revue des Deux Mondes. 1 Août. 3f.

M. Charmes discourses at some length on the quarrels in the Liberal party. He does so temperately enough but with a distinct "parti pris" against the Imperialist section. This was only to be expected. He acknowledges that while France without her Colonies might still remain a great Power England deprived of hers would degenerate into a second or third-rate one. Cannot he see then, that the whole of England having grasped this fact, it is necessary for the Liberal party to march with the times, to become Imperial and not insular, or perish, not that it will perish because it becomes Imperial? M. de Wyzewa sets out in the form of a parabolic story "Barsabas" the extreme danger to the thinker and writer of the possession of a gift for languages. Undoubtedly the power to think in many languages may destroy the faculty of thinking greatly in one. M. Faquet reviews at length M. Aulard's political history of the French Revolution. He may be right in thinking that the "rational ideal" of the Revolution will be more and more approximated to but never attained. If the present political state of France be any criterion, the attempt to attain it has much to answer for. The Vicomte de Vogüé's study of Gorin and Russian pessimism will reward attention.

The following books will be noticed later on: "La Cinna" (Ollendorff); "Le Mystère et la Volupté" (Ollendorff); "Les Jeunes Filles" (Ollendorff); "La Source Fatale" (Plon); "Les Messieurs de Séryac" (Ollendorff); "Leur Fille" (Ollendorff); "Nouveau Journal Inédit de Marie Bashkirtseff, suivi des Lettres de Guy Maupassant—Bashkirtseff" (Edition de "La Revue"); "Tranquillement" (Ollendorff).

We have also to acknowledge the following reviews: "Revue de Paris"; "Revue Britannique"; "La Revue"; "Revue Bleue".

For This Week's Books see page 186.

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The Pilot.

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In recent Issues of THE PILOT Articles on the following subjects have appeared:—

Literary.—Huxley; Dante (several Articles); Bishop Stubbs as an Historian; The Housing of Books, by Stephen Gwynn; The Secret of "Charm" in Literature, by Canon Ainger; A Series of Articles on "Books and Men," by Andrew Lang.

Biographical.—Charlotte Yonge; Sir John Stainer, by W. Barclay Squire; Walter Savage Landor; Verdi; Joachim; Jules Lemaitre.

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Mr. G. F. Tavenor presided.

The Secretary (Mr. W. P. Owen, F.I.S.) having read the notice convening the meeting,

The Chairman said this was a momentous period in the history of the company. They had to discriminate upon and accept, or otherwise, the resolutions which the directors put before them. He gave a short résumé of the immediate past. When the company was last reconstructed, with a shilling liability per share, the reconstruction was sanctioned by the shareholders, who, in adopting that policy, were actuated by the fact that a large shareholder—Mr. W. Paisley—urged that his brother, an able and skilful mining engineer, then in Western Australia, Mr. T. G. Paisley, should be entrusted with the fortunes of the company. This gentleman went further, and added that he had such implicit confidence in his brother, and in his brother's mining qualities, that if the shareholders sanctioned the provision of the money he would himself liberally add to the amount of capital by subscribing for every share he possessed—rather a large number. Mr. T. G. Paisley, who was accredited by the company in Western Australia to make researches and find out the very best means possible for acquiring an interest or a property which would bring advantage and profit to them, was a long time before he made up his mind; but when he did so, he gave an opinion which inspired the directors with such confidence that they considered that the time had arrived when the cloud was to be lifted from the history of the Glenrock Company. Mr. T. G. Paisley told them that a property called the Carnage was for disposal, and he estimated from what he saw that if we were given two or three months in which to remain on the property and ascertain its resources, he would then be able at the end of that time to say whether it was worth our spending our capital upon it or not. The three months elapsed, and they received from Mr. Paisley an account of the property, which, in a few words, may be described as first rate. They backed Mr. T. G. Paisley with the necessary capital, and most unanimously carried his desires and wishes into effect. Months went on, and still the golden nugget did not come from the mine. At last the directors got tired of waiting, and placed themselves into communication with a firm of mining engineers then in London. One of the partners was proceeding to Western Australia, and we thought it most desirable that we should get this entirely independent firm to visit our property, and report to us truthfully the exact state of the property as they found it. The gentleman in question went to Western Australia, and as soon as possible made his way to our property. He inquired into the administration, he examined the workings, and saw everything, and his report to us was simply disastrous. So far from bearing out Mr. T. G. Paisley's assertions, he controverted them in detail, and said that nothing on the ground warranted any mining engineer in saying that it was a gold-producing mine; but, on the contrary, was a very low-grade proposition, and what ore there was would cost a great deal to get. That information came like a thunderbolt upon them. Well, Providence not only seemed most unkind to us as a company, but we found that our colleague and co-director (Mr. W. Paisley) had met with one of the most serious afflictions that could fall to a man—that he had lost his eyesight. They entirely expected in due course to see Mr. T. G. Paisley walk into the office and report himself, and give all the information possible; more than that, it was their intention to have called a meeting of the shareholders, and to have invited Mr. Paisley to explain himself not only his want of success—which the best men in the world sometimes cannot achieve—but for his delusive and incorrect reports of the value of the mine which he purchased with their money; but from that time to this they have not seen Mr. T. G. Paisley. They let the mine on tribute to some working miners. On it they had spent something like £15,000, which is perfectly lost to us. Some months ago they were approached by certain gentlemen—large holders in the company—who asked them about their Indian property in the Wynaad. The idea of a gentleman acquainted with and interested in the Wynaad was that the Glenrock Company should be reconstructed, and he was willing if necessary to subscribe £33,750 to the new company. The name of the gentleman is Mr. George Herring. The directors have now brought forward their present scheme, supported by Mr. Herring and most of the largest shareholders. "I must confess that many shareholders could not at first quite see how the Wynaad could turn out better than it was originally presumed to be; but when they went into the subject, and became acquainted with the facts, I think I can confidently say that they are of opinion—certainly those whom I have seen personally—that it is the wisest and most prudent course that we could possibly adopt. We have our own property, some 40 stamps, and, in addition, large buildings, and every facility in the way of timber, water, and labour; more than that we have the financial backing of Mr. George Herring, and I am delighted to know that he is exercising himself on behalf of the Glenrock Company, because I think that he means in the future that our shares, instead of simmering on the hob, will presently be boiling on the fire." He moved the resolutions, and Mr. George Ricketts, C.B., seconded.

Mr. H. D. H. Ferguson, J.P., as one acquainted with India and a director of the Nundydroog Company, strongly supported the scheme, and said from what he had been able to learn of the Wynaad he had the utmost confidence in it.

At the request of several shareholders, Mr. George Herring, who was received with applause, addressed the meeting. He said he thought that what he was going to do would convince the shareholders that he had absolute faith in the Wynaad. He intended the reconstruction to go through, and it would go through whether the shares were taken up by the present shareholders or not.

Mr. H. R. Taylor supported the resolutions, which after further discussion were put to the meeting and carried amid applause, with only three dissentients.

BREWERY AND COMMERCIAL INVESTMENT.

THE twelfth ordinary general meeting of the shareholders of the Brewery and Commercial Investment Trust, Limited, was held on the 2nd inst. at 12 Moorgate Street, E.C., under the presidency of Mr. J. R. Ellerman, Chairman of the company.

The Chairman, in moving the adoption of the report and accounts, said during the twelve years what he regarded as satisfactory dividends had been paid to the shareholders. The year under review had been one of exceptional difficulty. The war in South Africa had continued, large issues of Consols had been made, the Money Market had been at a very high level of interest, thereby affecting to a considerable extent their revenue, and during the whole period under review there had also been a constant tendency of all securities to dwindle in price and value. Consols, their premier security, had during the year depreciated something like 10 per cent., and most other first-class securities had depreciated to about the same extent, and some of them even to a greater extent. They had suffered from this depreciation, but not to anything like that extent. The dividend for this last year was the lowest paid in the last five years of the company's history, although it was $6\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on the deferred stock. The reason was that they had preferred to meet and write off several losses—and this they had not hesitated to do so as to put the company in a stronger financial position—rather than leave the investments on their books to be dealt with at a future time. But, apart from the question of appreciation or depreciation of their securities, he was pleased to say that their income, notwithstanding the gloomy character of the year under review, showed an increase in the dividends and interest received of £512, or nearly 4 per cent. increase. The net result, after writing off losses on securities, was that their profit was something like £1,200 less than last year, but this was caused mainly by increased interest and decreased commissions. The dividends proposed were 4 per cent. on the preferred stock and $6\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on the deferred stock, but he would point out that the $6\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on the deferred stock, as it now covered the dividend paid on the stock created to extinguish the founders' rights, was practically equivalent to 7 per cent. Their trusteeship fees are steadily increasing, and he was pleased to say that, notwithstanding the depreciation which had taken place in almost every class of security during the year, they had an appreciation of their investments, taking the investment reserve fund into account, of nearly £6,000, or, taking their general reserve fund into account, they had a total surplus of capital of £14,064, which in the exceptional position of all securities as regards their valuation, he could not but think the shareholders would deem satisfactory. The total valuation is £266,000. Of that we have £121,000 in debentures, or $45\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; we have £96,600 in preference shares, or 37 per cent., and we have £48,600 in ordinary shares, or $17\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; or, put in another way, of our total capital we have $14\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. invested in breweries, 27 per cent. in industrial investments, $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. in shipping, $14\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. in Government, foreign, and financial investments, and $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. in railways. He moved that the report and accounts be received and adopted, and that in accordance therewith the dividends recommended be declared, payable on 14th August.

Mr. F. Stroud seconded the motion, which was then put and carried unanimously.

A vote of thanks was accorded the Chairman at the instance of Mr. Dunn, and the proceedings terminated.

MAISON VIROT, LIMITED.

THE fourth annual general meeting of the shareholders of Maison Virot, Limited, was held on Tuesday at the Institute of Chartered Accountants, Moorgate Place, E.C., under the presidency of Mr. James Jackson (chairman of the company).

The Secretary (Mr. T. Nevell) having read the notice convening the meeting, The Chairman said that comparing the figures with those of last year, the first entry on the debtor side of the balance-sheet—viz., the amount of our capital—stands at the same as before. Creditors are £960 less. Unclaimed dividends are £7 lower than they were. The amount due to Messrs. Meyer and Co. has risen by £554. This constitutes the debts of the old firm that they were collecting and paying to the old proprietors. The reserve account had been increased by the £305 carried to it last year. The profit on trading was £1,309 less than last year; but, on the other hand, the charges were £1,103 less, leaving a difference of £207 in the total net profit, which was now £10,937, as against £11,144 in 1900. On the credit side the first item—goodwill, fixtures, &c.—stands at the old figure of £192,120. The stock-in-trade still stands at the slight figure at which they usually have it, and, considering the fact that purchases of material do throughout the year aggregate quite a substantial sum, it was miraculous that stocks should continue to stand at so low a figure. The explanation lies in the fact that their stock is turned over so rapidly. The complete change of the whole of the stock was reckoned rather by hours than by days. Debtors stand at £1,633 18s. 4d. lower than last year, which was a satisfactory feature, while cash at bankers' and in hand was £3,384 more. This is largely accounted for by the fact of no interim dividend having been paid, which amounted to £2,030 last year. The directors have decided to give up their fees for this year entirely. Income-tax is £62 higher than in 1900, and at its present figure it represents very nearly 10 per cent. of the net profits of the company; so I think you will agree with me that we contribute our full share to the revenue both of France and of England. The French get rather less than our own Government does. During three-fourths of the year the business was carried on under ordinary conditions. As adverse features they might reckon the continuance of the war in South Africa and the death of the Queen, which, no doubt, considerably curtailed the purchases of English customers. On the other hand, the great revival of trade in America and the extraordinary appreciation of securities in that country led to a large influx of American visitors with their pockets exceptionally well filled, and from them they might reasonably have anticipated a good amount of patronage. During the year several of the members of the board had visited Paris and seen the working of the business there, and with a view to being more constantly and more directly represented in Paris, we have elected Mr. Julien Kinsbourg to a seat on the board. The experience of the past four years has led the board to the conclusion that the character of the business of Maison Virot is not one that lends itself particularly well to joint-stock management, nor, indeed, to the ordinary commercial matters of control. It is a consciousness of this fact, and a conviction that comparatively little can be done in the boardroom, combined with an unwillingness that they should get any personal benefit at the expense of the shareholders while the dividend is still low, that has led the directors to relinquish the whole of the £1,500 of fees that they were entitled to under the articles of association. He proposed the adoption of the report and accounts.

Sir W. P. Treloar seconded the motion, which was then put and carried unanimously.

The Chairman, in acknowledging a vote of thanks to the directors, said that of course their duties were of a rather thankless nature. He was sure the position would be appreciated by anyone who had had to share in such a combination of duties as fell to the directors of this company.

The proceedings then terminated.

REPORT OF THE DIRECTORS OF THE CROWN REEF GOLD MINING COMPANY, LIMITED, FOR THE YEAR ENDING MARCH 31st, 1901.

TO THE SHAREHOLDERS.

GENTLEMEN,
Your Directors beg to submit an Interim Report on the Company's affairs, with Balance Sheet and Profit and Loss Account duly audited, from April 1st, 1900 to March 31st, 1901.

OPERATIONS.—Owing to the continuation of hostilities between Great Britain and the forces of the late South African Republic, your mine has not been in active operation since the last report.

Since the occupation of the Transvaal by the British Forces in June, 1900, the work of renovating the Machinery and Plant, Buildings, &c., has, through the courtesy of the Military Authorities, been carried on with more or less activity. As intimated in the last Interim Report, the Government of the late South African Republic took forcible possession of your property on October 14th, 1899, and your Directors learnt that the Government of the late South African Republic worked it for about nine weeks. The mine was formally handed back to the Company on March 26th, 1900.

ACCOUNTS.—The Accounts now presented show a gross expenditure of £40,696 6s. 6d.; a full analysis of the same, under the various heads, will be found in the Profit and Loss Account attached.

This has been appropriated as follows:—

Dividends paid	£1,157,900 0 0
Profit transferred to Working Capital	20,000 0 0
Reserve Fund transferred to Working Capital ..	27,121 17 6
Reserve Fund invested as per Balance Sheet ..	91,632 3 3
Balance of Profit and Loss Account	91,319 12 5
	£1,387,973 13 2

BALANCE SHEET AND PROFIT AND LOSS ACCOUNT.—The details of the renovation to Machinery and Plant will be found specified in the attached Profit and Loss Account. There was a considerable amount of damage done to the Machinery and Plant, which makes the cost of renovating somewhat heavy; the details of this and the approximate amount, which can be legitimately charged to damage, through the neglect and incompetency of the employees working under the late Government, will be found in the attached Manager's Report.

As will be seen from the Profit and Loss Account, the Government commandeered some £7,083 worth of stores. The whereabouts of some of these can be traced, and it is hoped will be recovered in due course. The only item appearing to the credit of Profit and Loss Account is that received for Interest on Deposits.

The divisible Profit brought forward from last year amounted to	£129,908 13 9
To which can be added the amount received for Interest and Rents, viz.:—	2,107 3 2
	£132,015 18 11
Less amount expended during the year	40,696 6 6
Leaving the sum of	£91,319 12 5

to the credit of Profit and Loss Account at March 31, 1901.

The item, Sundry Creditors, in the Balance Sheet appears to be very heavy; this includes the tradesmen's accounts for September 1899, and sundry advances made in Johannesburg during the past year. Some of the September Accounts have been paid since, and all the money advanced has been refunded. The item of Stores and Materials in hands of Agents at the coast is also somewhat abnormal; this is due to the fact that your Directors anticipated that the mine would resume operations earlier than has proved to be the case, and bearing in mind the wholesale commandeering which was taking place before the British occupation, it was deemed expedient to import such quantities of Stores as would be necessary to enable your mine to run in full swing until such time as the local Merchants could replace their stocks.

GOLD ACCOUNT.—No gold has been produced from your mine since the last report. In the amount specified in the last Balance Sheet as having been seized by the Government of the late South African Republic, viz., £26,934 10s. 5d., there was included a box of Gold Slime, containing approximately 130 lbs., valued at about £3,500, which was found still in possession of the Bank after the British occupation. The gold slime has since been smelted and yielded 913'23 ozs. With reference to the 6,375'45 ozs. of gold commandeered by the Government of the late South African Republic there is nothing further to report, the case, instituted by some of the Companies interested, being still *sub judice*.

DIVIDENDS.—As intimated in last year's Report, your Directors consider it in the best interests of Shareholders not to declare any further Dividends until such time as the mine resumes active operations. The following table shows the amount of Dividends paid by your Company since its inception.

The following is a list of Dividend Warrants which were still outstanding at March 31st, 1901, and special attention is directed thereto:—

Dividend No. 12	Miss E. M. F. Lenoble	£2 10 0
" "	" " C. L. E. Feuchere	0 5 0
" "	" " H. Cartier	100 0 0
" "	" " H. Meyer	14 8 0
" "	" " Dr. J. H. A. Gibert	£7 10 0
" "	" " Frau Von Also Ruzbach (von Mayer)	8 0 0
" "	" " A. A. M. L. Arhould	1 16 0
" "	" " P. H. Daumesnil	54 0 0
" "	" " J. F. Fauvel	4 10 0
" "	" " Dr. J. H. A. Gibert	13 10 0
" "	" " A. Hertrich	9 0 0
" "	" " C. de Grandmaison	45 0 0
" "	" " A. Ville	0 18 0
		£33 4 0

Should any Shareholder find his or her name in the above list, and not have received warrants since the publication of the above, they are kindly requested to communicate with the London Office of the Company, when duplicate warrants will be issued after conforming to the required procedure. Since Dividends outstanding for Accounts Nos. 12–15, amounting to £102 15s. 0d., have not been claimed during the past year, they will be withdrawn from the Bank and invested in the Reserve Fund in terms of amended Article 56 of the Company's Trust Deed.

RESERVE FUND.—The Reserve Fund now stands at £91,632 3s. 3d. The increase during the year is accounted for by the fact that the Interest received on that account is reinvested. For its appropriation, you are referred to the Balance Sheet attached.

ANNUAL MEETING.—Your Directors duly noted that in terms of the Company's Trust Deed, a General Meeting of Shareholders should be held once in the course of each year, but under existing circumstances it was not deemed advisable to hold such meeting at the present time.

DIRECTORS.—It is with sincere regret that your Board have to record the death of Mr. Adolph Goetz, one of the Directors of your Company, which took place on July 28th, 1900. Mr. H. Strakosch has been elected a Director in the place of Mr. A. Goetz, deceased, subject to confirmation at the next Ordinary General Meeting of Shareholders.

LONDON COMMITTEE.—During the year Mr. JOHN ELLIOTT, one of the Members of the London Committee, resigned his position on account of ill-health, and your Board elected Mr. A. P. HILLIER to fill the vacancy.

AUDITORS.—The Auditor's Report is attached hereto.

W. H. ROGERS, Chairman.
W. ADYE, Director.
H. R. NETHERSOLE, Secretary.

GENERAL MANAGER'S REPORT.

APRIL 1ST, 1901.

TO THE CHAIRMAN AND DIRECTORS, CROWN REEF GOLD MINING COMPANY, LIMITED, JOHANNESBURG.

GENTLEMEN,—

I herewith submit for your consideration a Report on the operations of your Company for the fiscal year ending March 31st, 1901. During the year under review no gold was produced to the profit of your Company nor the Government of the late South African Republic. Incorporated in this Report will be found a statement showing the results of the operations during the period December 1st, 1899, to March 26th, 1900, when the property was worked by the Government of the late South African Republic.

FINANCIAL.—RECEIPTS.—On gold account—*Nil*.

DISBURSEMENTS.—The total disbursements during the year amounted to £40,696 6s. 6d., which can be summarised as follows:—

From October 1st, 1899, to the time of the British occupation	£4,700 4 1
Stores and Quartz commandeered by the late Government	5,271 2 6
Expended at Mine—	
Renovating Machinery and Plant	31,112 13 5
Pumping	4,653 4 1
Other expenses	11,979 2 5
	£40,696 6 6

Of the amount £11,112 13s. 5d. expended on the necessary repairs to put the Plant in good working order, a sum of, approximately, £5,400 was expended on repairs required through the damage done due to incompetency and negligence exercised during the period the Mine was worked by the Government of the late South African Republic.

MINE.—As estimated in last year's Report, your mine closed down on October 14th, 1899, and was officially taken over by the Government of the late South African Republic on October 14th, 1899.

Approximately 24,000 tons of broken ore were left lying in the stopes below ground. A further 2,375 tons of sorted ore were in stock. The statement of the late Government shows that 15,265 tons were hoisted from the mine, and 2,038 tons taken from the stock at surface.

It is estimated that about 6,000 tons of broken ore remain below ground at the present time. No development work, stoping, general repairs, nor maintenance were undertaken by the Government of the late South African Republic. In July, 1900, a careful inspection of the timbering in the Main Incline Shaft was made, when it was found that considerable decay existed, as most of this timber had been in place nine years. The shaft was accordingly re-timbered from the collar to the blue ground near the old 3rd Level; the ladder ways, air pipes, and tracks were also put in good repair to the bottom of the Shaft. A further small amount of repair was required in the old No. 1 and No. 2 Shafts, as it was considered advisable to keep these open. On the various working levels the tracks were put in repair, the accumulation of acid waters along the drifts having badly attacked the iron rails. A small amount of drift and stope timbering was done where it was absolutely necessary, and a few natives have been employed shovelling the broken ore down the stopes ready for the time of restarting. The Mine and Shaft are now in good repair for the full resumption of work.

MILL.—This Plant suffered most by the operations of the Government of the late South African Republic, evidently through the inferior class of artisans employed. The copper plates were found to have been removed and roasted, and were left in a bad condition. The general ill-treatment of the Battery, coupled with the wear and tear of 7 years' running under full head, rendered a complete overhauling of this Plant necessary. This work commenced in October, 1900, and with the very small force available has continued to date, and should be completed in a short time. New amalgamation tables, floors, guide-girths, blocks, a few new king posts, feeder shoots, and new bolts were required right through. The average weight of the stamps during the years 1897–1898 was 925 lbs., during the years 1898–1899 this was gradually increased to an average of 1,150 lbs. by the addition of stamps weighing 1,250 lbs. It has been considered advisable to use the present favourable opportunity to replace the remaining 60 light stamps by the 1,250 lb. standard. This work is under way. It is estimated that the duty of the Battery will be increased by an additional 500 tons per month through these improvements. The raising of the Mill Ore bins is under consideration, the present comparatively small capacity involves extra expense in hauling from the mine during Sundays, in order to keep the Mill supplied. It is proposed to increase the capacity of these bins to 1,400 tons.

MILL ENGINE ROOM.—It was found that both the low and high pressure cylinders of the Mill Engine were deeply scored by the careless handling received. They required re-boring and new pistons. This has been completed. The armatures of the Electric Plant, both lighting and power, had been burnt out, together with the spares on hand. These have all been re-wound. A new floor was found necessary in this room. The boiler plant, feed-water heaters, and condensers required considerable attention, but are now in good condition.

CYANIDE PLANT.—The damage done to this plant is confined to the pumps and motors, and with small repairs can be put in good working order; the wooden launders required considerable attention owing to long exposure to the sun.

SLIMES PLANT.—An attempt to work this plant was made by the management of the Government of the late South African Republic, but it proved hopelessly unsuccessful. It was found that the pumps, pipes, and tanks were in bad disorder, and they required considerable attention to put them right.

CROWN REEF GOLD MINING COMPANY, LIMITED—Continued.

RESUMÉ OF OPERATIONS OF THE GOVERNMENT OF THE LATE SOUTH AFRICAN REPUBLIC.

DECEMBER 12th, 1899—MARCH 26th, 1900.	
Tons of ore hoisted	18,265 tons.
Tons of waste sorted out	3,542 "
Sorted ore from surface stock	14,723 "
Milled	2,038 "
Total	16,761 tons.
60 stamps ran 55½ days, making an average of 5'03 tons crushed per stamp per 24 hours.	
Cyanided—	
Sands	11,500 tons.
Concentrates	900 "
Slimes	Not treated.
Recovery	
Mill	9,763'41 ozs. fine gold.
Cyanides	4,037'72 "
Slags	69'55 "
Total	13,872'68 "

GENERAL.—It is confidently anticipated that when full operations are in progress again under normal conditions the profits will be maintained at about the same figure as the six months previous to the outbreak of hostilities. The present management returned to the mine in June, 1900. A few of the old staff and employés, who had served in the Field with the Colonial Forces and were allowed to remain in the Transvaal, have returned to the mine from time to time. Repairs were pushed ahead as much as possible from last June with the very small force available and the unfavourable conditions ruling, it being necessary to keep a constant guard against night attacks.

I beg to remain, yours faithfully,

H. S. STARK, Acting Manager.

BALANCE SHEET. 31st March, 1901.

CAPITAL AND LIABILITIES.

To Capital Account—	120,000 Shares of £1 each	£120,000 0 0
" Share Premium Account—	Premium on Shares sold	£116,187 0 0
" Revenue Account—	Revenue appropriated for Working Capital	20,000 0 0
" Reserve Fund Account—	Reserve Fund appropriated for Working Capital	27,121 17 6
		163,308 17 6
" Reserve Fund—	Per contra	91,632 3 3
" De Nationale Bank, Ltd. (General Account)—	Overdraft at Johannesburg	6,188 1 10
" De Nationale Bank, Ltd. (Manager's Account)—	Overdraft at Johannesburg	631 5 7
" Sundry Creditors—	On account of Wages, Stores, &c.	30,464 17 4
" Unclaimed Dividend Account—	No. 12	2 10 0
	No. 14	0 5 0
	No. 15	100 0 0
	No. 21	14 8 0
	No. 23	15 10 0
	No. 24	133 4 0
		265 17 0
" Profit and Loss Account—	Balance	37,550 1 9
		91,319 12 5
		£503,810 14 11

PROPERTY AND ASSETS.

By Mine Property—	Paid to Vendors 56,000 Shares of £1 each	£56,000 0 0
	Paid to Vendors, Cash	18,000 0 0
	Purchase Price of Freehold of Mijnpacht, Cash	26,000 0 0
		£100,000 0 0
" Property Account—	Purchase Price of Claims (43½) Mill Site	£2,587 0 0
	Purchase Price of Claims (8) on Farm Turfontein	325 0 0
		2,912 0 0
" Water Rights—	Old Water Right	500 0 0
	New Water Right	3,000 0 0
		3,500 0 0
" Reservoirs and Dams—	Mill Water Dam	3,714 17 10
	Mill Tailings Dam	861 7 2
	Mill Service Reservoir	1,154 10 7
	Mine Service Reservoir	628 18 7
		6,359 14 2
" Machinery and Plant—	120-Stamp Mill and Water Service	57,614 17 11
	Electric Plant, Power and Lighting	13,001 1 5
	Cyanide Works	16,284 17 7
	Tram Plant, Surface and Underground	7,131 11 0
	Workshops Plant	3,700 15 10
	Rock Drilling Plant	11,383 5 8
	No. 1 Main Shaft, Hauling and Pumping Gear	1,525 0 0
	No. 2 Main Shaft, Hauling and Pumping Gear	800 0 0
	Incline Shaft Head Gear, Stone Breakers, Engines, &c.	12,042 4 1
	Carts and Harness	222 1 9
	Assay Plant, Surveying Instruments, Piping Mill to Mine and Sundries	1,083 14 2
		124,789 9 5
" Buildings Account		21,486 12 2
" Mine Development—	Main Shafts and Main Crosscuts	24,261 1 9
		183,308 17 6
" Slimes Plant		19,167 1 10
	Less amounts received to date for Accumulated Slimes sold	17,071 15 9
		2,095 6 1
" Buildings and Plant		4,724 17 8
	Less amounts written off to date	2,460 7 6
		2,264 10 2

By Insurance, paid in advance	£418 13 6
" Investment—	
Rand Mutual Assurance Company, 253 shares of £10 each (£5 paid and £2 10s. premium)	£1,847 10 0
Less Dividend received	253 0 0
Stores and Materials—	
In Stock	8,049 5 3
In hands of Agents at Coast	9,202 8 6
	17,251 13 9
" De Nationale Bank, Limited, Manager's Account, Capetown	100 0 0
" De Nationale Bank, Limited, General Account, Capetown	382 14 7
" Bank of Africa, Caretaker's Account	277 15 7
" Cash in Office	254 15 0
" Union Bank of London, Limited, Deposit Account	75,673 12 6
" Union Bank of London, Limited, Current Account	297 8 2
" De Nationale Bank, Limited, Dividend Account	265 17 0
	77,253 2 10
" Gold seized by Transvaal Government, as per Bank receipt, 6,375'45 ozs., valued at	22,894 10 5
" Gold on Consignment	3,500 0 0
	26,394 10 5
" Sundry Debtors	2,148 7 5
" Reserve Fund—	
£78,202 6s. 8d. British 2½ per cent. Consols	85,876 4 3
£5,300 Rand Mines 5 per cent. Debentures	5,755 19 0
	91,632 3 3
	£503,810 14 11

H. R. NETHERSOLE, Secretary.

W. H. ROGERS, Chairman.

W. ADYE, Director.

Examined and found correct in terms of accompanying Report, THOS. DOUGLAS, Auditor. Chartered Accountant.

CROWN REEF, JOHANNESBURG, 1st July, 1901.

PROFIT AND LOSS ACCOUNT for Year Ending 31st March, 1901.

To Expenses from 1-12 October, 1899—	
Salaries, Wages, Stores, &c.	£4,682 0 11
Less written off at 31st March, 1900	3,127 6 7
	£1,554 14 4
" Pumping from 1st October, 1899, to 31st March, 1901 (under Contract)	4,633 4 1
" Expenses at Mine for Special Police, caretaking, &c., from 13th October, 1899, to 30th June, 1900	3,145 9 0
	£9,333 8 2
" Expenditure at Mine for renovating Machinery, Plant, Buildings, &c., since 1st July, 1900—	
Incline Shaft, retimbering, &c.	2,183 0 2
Underground Tram Tracks	50 17 0
Cleaning down old stopes and general clean up underground	831 8 11
Hauling Engines	63 19 1
Boilers at Mine	154 17 1
Air Compressors and Rock Drill Plant	57 14 9
Coal Bunkers	59 12 1
Ore-bins at Head-gear	50 7 1
	3,471 16 2
Trucks and Main Tram Tracks from Mine to Mill	37 5 2
Mill repairs	4,047 17 7
Mill Engine	538 7 4
Mill Boilers	808 19 5
Mill Water Service	80 15 8
Main Pumping Station	194 9 7
	5,670 9 7
Cyanide Works	301 6 1
Slimes Plant	266 15 7
Sorting Table	86 2 2
Stone Crushers	122 3 6
	203 5
Reservoir at Incline Shaft	272 12 9
Roads	144 3 8
General repairs to Quarters	178 16 6
	595 12 11
Electric Plant	561 2 3
	11,112 13 5
" General Expenditure for year ending 31st March, 1901—	
Licences	330 15 0
Insurances	558 14 7
Capetown Office Expenses	1,192 8 9
London Office, London Committee, Consulting Engineer, Auditors, Advertising, Printing, etc.	1,124 5 6
Retaining Salaries to Mine Staff	2,030 16 8
Interest and Commission	810 1 5
Defence of Mine Property	910 6 6
Caretaking, Office and Store (since July 1900)	851 17 4
Sanitation Fees, Water for Domestic Purposes and Compound, Chamber of Mines Subscription and General Sundries	1,079 5 2
	9,138 10 11
" Stores commandeered by late Government	7,083 12 1
" Quartz at Grass commandeered by late Government	1,187 10 5
	8,271 2 6
" Additions to Machinery and Plant—	
New Assay Office—balance of cost	1,849 11 6
New Cyanide Tanks—amount paid on account	1,000 0 0
	2,849 11 6
Balance	91,319 12 5
	£132,015 18 11
By interest received on Deposits and Rents	£2,107 3 2
Balance from last year	129,908 15 9
	£132,015 18 11

H. R. NETHERSOLE, Secretary.

W. H. ROGERS, Chairman.

W. ADYE, Director.

Mr. MACQUEEN'S NEW NOVELS.

SIX SHILLINGS EACH.

JUST READY.

THE FLY WHEEL : A Novel.

By GEORGE WEMYSS.

THE FLY WHEEL : A Novel.

By GEORGE WEMYSS.

THE FLY WHEEL : A Novel.

By GEORGE WEMYSS.

THE FLY WHEEL : A Novel.

By GEORGE WEMYSS.

Author of "A Fantasy in Fustian," "Tween New and Old,"
"Jane Follett," &c.

EVER MOHUN. By FRED. T. JANE.

EVER MOHUN. By FRED. T. JANE.

Author of "All the World's Fighting Ships," "Lordship, Parson, and We," &c. With Frontispiece by the Author.

"Mr. Jane's latest book is without doubt one of the finest pieces of fiction produced this year."—*Scotsman*.

"'Ever Mohun' is a charming maid.....prettily sketched.....an original and attractive figure.....this is the best book in the group.....a good piece of work."—*Daily Chronicle*.

THE LOST KEY : An International Episode.

THE LOST KEY : An International Episode.

By Hon. LADY ACLAND.

"It is impossible not to appreciate this excellent novel."—*Madame*.
"Lady Acland shows herself a patient student of the social and political problems which confront us to-day.....She is a painstaking student of human nature."—*Candid Friend*.

"Bright and picturesque.....an animated story."—*Daily Telegraph*.

THE GOLDEN FLEECE. By AMÉDÉE

THE GOLDEN FLEECE. ACHARD.

Illustrated.

"The story is one succession of exciting episodes, conceived in a most delightful spirit of romance, and a more fascinating book of its kind it would be difficult to find."—*Publishers' Circular*.

THE DEVIL'S PLOUGH. By ANNA

THE DEVIL'S PLOUGH. FARQUHAR.

Frontispiece in colours.

"Mias Farquhar has treated a subject which might have been a very unpleasant one in a picturesque and masterly fashion. There is something so objectionably immoral in the idea of a devout Jesuit priest falling in love and making passionate love to a beautiful but rather notorious French countess, a popular favourite in the French Court of Anne of Austria, that the author has set herself a difficult task to enlist the sympathy and forgiveness of her readers. But that we must admit she has succeeded in doing. The story, which is one of unusual interest, opens in Paris in the year 1646.....Apart from the exciting love-story the book is deserving of great praise, for there is honest work and considerable art in it."—*Literary World*.

"The authoress has worked out with skill the complications of love and war which result from this proceeding.....The tale is likely to prove deservedly popular."—*Glasgow Herald*.

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IN THE CITY. By ALFRED HURRY.

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